

An industrial psychological study establishing the relationship between career self-management and job performance



Deidre Bredell

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establishing the relationship between
career self-management and job
performance**

Deidre Bredell

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requirements for the degree of Master of Arts at the
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**Dr HD Vos
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I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

SUMMARY

Individuals in South Africa are constantly confronted with career related challenges. As a result of high unemployment, affirmative action, the outsourcing of work and other changes in the economy, only the very best employees with relevant skills and qualifications can survive in the contemporary work place. Career self-management therefore cannot be neglected or left to the employer, but should be undertaken by each individual on a continuous basis.

An unavoidable question, with which any individual will be confronted at some stage during the process of career management, is: "Will career management necessarily have a positive effect on job performance?"

The essential question of this study is whether there is a statistically significant relation between career self-management and job performance. In an effort to investigate and understand this relation more efficiently, a literature study was first undertaken concerning both the independent variable, namely career self-management, and the dependent variable, namely job performance. This was followed by an empirical investigation.

Career self-management may be defined as the process by which individuals take well considered, informed, suitable decisions about their working lives. The process of career self-management consists of different components, namely career exploration, career goal setting, the development of career strategies and career evaluation.

Career exploration includes self-exploration as well as exploration of the environment. Self-knowledge focuses on the acquisition of knowledge regarding internal aspects such as values, personality, aptitude, interests, weak points and strong points. Environment exploration, on the other hand, includes the acquisition of knowledge and information about the working environment.

Career goal setting is the second component in the career self-management process, and involves the setting of challenging but realistic career goals by the individual for the short, medium and long term.

The individual develops career strategies in order to realise career goals. Various types of career strategies may be distinguished, such as competence in the current position, extended involvement at work, development of skills, participation in organisational politics and the utilisation of opportunities by, for example, the creation of networks, self-nomination and visibility.

After sufficient time has elapsed for the implementation of the strategies, the individual has to compare the identified goals with achieved goals and adjust the original career plan accordingly. These adjustments will in turn require further career exploration and the process will be repeated.

The dependent variable, namely individual job performance, may be defined as the way in which a job or task is executed by an individual, group or organisation.

An individual's job performance mainly depends on two aspects, namely ability and motivation (attempt). Ability refers to the individual's potential to successfully complete a task or job. Motivation is an internal driving force which moves an individual and which directs his/her behaviour in such a way that goals may be achieved.

The empirical part of the study investigated the statistical relationship between the two constructs on a test sample, consisting of 307 individuals from 5 different sectors (mining sector, real estate sector, health care sector, bank sector, and production sector). The career self-management of these individuals was tested by means of two questionnaires, namely the Career Exploration Survey and the Career Strategies Inventory. Their job performance was measured by the Job Performance Questionnaire, which were handed to their managers/supervisors to complete.

Statistical analyses showed that no statistically significant relationship exists between career self-management and job performance. Further statistical

analyses also showed that there is no relation between any of the components of career self-management (career exploration, career goal setting, and development of career strategies) and job performance.

The research results suggest that career self-management does not necessarily lead to improved job performance, even though an individual may manage his/her career constructively.

OPSOMMING

Individue in Suid-Afrika word gereeld gekonfronteer met loopbaanverwante uitdagings. Die hoë werkloosheidssyfer, regstellende aksie, uitkontraktering en ander veranderinge in die ekonomie veroorsaak dat slegs die heel beste werknemers met relevante vaardighede en kwalifikasies in vandag se werkplek kan oorleef. Loopbaan-selfbestuur kan dus nie agterweë gelaat word of oorgelaat word aan die organisasie nie, maar behoort deur elke individu op 'n deurlopende basis gedoen te word.

'n Onvermydelike vraag waarmee enige individu op een of ander stadium tydens die loopbaanbestuursproses gekonfronteer sal word, is: "Sal loopbaanbestuur noodwendig 'n positiewe effek op werksprestasie hê?"

Hierdie vraag het die essensie van die studie gevorm, naamlik of daar 'n statisties beduidende verband bestaan tussen loopbaan-selfbestuur en werksprestasie. Ten einde hierdie verband beter te kon ondersoek en verstaan, is 'n literatuurstudie eerstens oor beide die onafhanklike veranderlike, loopbaan-selfbestuur, en die afhanklike veranderlike, werksprestasie, gedoen, waarna die empiriese gedeelte van die navorsing gevolg het.

Loopbaan-selfbestuur kan gedefinieer word as die proses waartydens individue weldeurdagte, ingeligte, geskikte besluite neem aangaande hulle werkslewens. Die proses van loopbaan-selfbestuur bestaan uit verskeie komponente, naamlik loopbaanverkenning, loopbaandoelwitstelling, die ontwikkeling van loopbaanstrategieë en loopbaanbeoordeling.

Loopbaanverkenning sluit self-verkenning sowel as verkenning van die omgewing in. Selfkennis fokus op die verkryging van kennis met betrekking tot interne aspekte soos waardes, persoonlikheid, aanleg, belangstellings, swakpunte en sterkpunte, terwyl omgewingsverkenning die verkryging van kennis en informasie oor die werksomgewing insluit.

Loopbaandoelwitstelling is die tweede komponent in die loopbaan-selfbestuursproses en behels dat die individu uitdagende, dog realistiese

loopbaandoelwitte stel – vir die korttermyn, mediumtermyn sowel as die langtermyn.

Ten einde loopbaandoelwitte te laat realiseer, ontwikkel die individu loopbaanstrategieë. Verskeie tipes loopbaanstrategieë kan onderskei word, soos byvoorbeeld bevoegdheid in die huidige pos, uitgebreide werksbetrokkenheid, vaardigheidsontwikkeling, deelname aan organisasiepolitiek en die benutting van geleenthede deur onder andere die vorming van netwerke, self-nominering en sigbaarheid.

Nadat voldoende tyd verloop het waartydens die strategieë geïmplementeer kon word, moet die individu die gestelde doelwitte met behaalde doelwitte vergelyk en op grond daarvan aanpassings maak ten opsigte van die aanvanklike loopbaanplan. Hierdie aanpassings sal weer verdere loopbaanverkenning verg en die proses word herhaal.

Die afhanklike veranderlike, naamlik individuele werksprestasie, kan gedefinieer word as die wyse waarop 'n werk of taak gedoen word deur 'n individu, groep of organisasie.

'n Individu se werksprestasie is hoofsaaklik afhanklik van twee aspekte, naamlik vermoë en motivering (poging). Vermoë verwys na die individu se potensiaal om 'n taak of werk suksesvol af te handel. Motivering is 'n interne dryfkrag wat 'n individu beweeg en sy/haar gedrag rig sodat doelwitte behaal kan word.

Die empiriese gedeelte van die studie het die statistiese verband tussen die twee konstrakte op 'n steekproef, bestaande uit 307 individue afkomstig van vyf verskillende sektore (myensektor, eiendomssektor, gesondheidsorgsektor, banksektor, vervaardigingsektor), ondersoek. Hierdie individue se loopbaanselfbestuur is bepaal deur middel van twee vraelyste, naamlik die "Career Exploration Survey" en die "Career Strategies Inventory". Hul werksprestasie is gemeet deur middel van die "Job Performance Questionnaire", wat aan hul bestuurders / toesighouers gegee is om te voltooi.

Statistiese analyses het getoon dat daar *geen* statisties beduidende verband bestaan tussen loopbaan-selfbestuur en werksprestasie nie. Verdere statistiese ontledings het ook getoon dat daar geen verband tussen enige van die komponente van loopbaan-selfbestuur (loopbaanverkenning, loopbaandoelwitstelling en ontwikkeling van loopbaanstrategieë) en werksprestasie bestaan nie.

Die gevolgtrekking wat op grond van die navorsingsresultate gemaak kan word, is dat, alhoewel 'n individu sy/haar loopbaan konstruktief mag bestuur, dit nie noodwendig tot verbeterde werksprestasie sal lei nie.

**Dedicated to my parents and my husband, whose
loving support and continuous assistance has made
all the difference.**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1	1
 INTRODUCTION.....	1
 1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH	1
 1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT	3
 1.3. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	4
1.3.1. General objective	4
1.3.2. Specific objectives.....	4
 1.4. FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES.....	5
 1.5. CONCLUSION	6
CHAPTER 2	8
 LITERATURE REVIEW: CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT	8
 2.1. INTRODUCTION	8
 2.2. CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT MODEL	9
 2.3. CAREER EXPLORATION.....	12
2.3.1. Introduction	12
2.3.2. A model of career exploration	13
2.3.2.1. The exploration process	14
2.3.2.2. Reactions to exploratory behaviour	15
2.3.2.3. Beliefs about exploratory behaviour.....	16
2.3.3. Self-exploration	17
2.3.3.1. Personal qualities	17
2.3.3.2. Effective self-exploration techniques	23
2.3.3.3. Identification of career anchors.....	26

2.3.3.4. Benefits of self-exploration	28
2.3.3.5. Concluding remarks.....	29
2.3.4. Environmental exploration.....	29
2.3.4.1. Occupational information	30
2.3.4.2. Job information.....	32
2.3.4.3. Organisation information.....	33
2.3.4.4. Families and life-style	34
2.4. CAREER GOALS.....	35
2.4.1. The concept of goal setting	35
2.4.2. The importance of goal setting	35
2.4.3. Characteristics of effective goals and objectives.....	37
2.4.4. Components of career goals	38
2.4.5. Development of career goals	39
2.4.6. Obstacles to effective career goal setting	41
2.4.7. The individual's first career goal - Making an occupational choice..	41
2.4.7.1. Psychological explanations for occupational choice.....	42
2.4.7.2. Sociological explanations for occupational choice	51
2.4.7.3. Concise model capturing psychological, sociological and economic explanations of occupational choice	52
2.4.8. Concluding remarks	53
2.5. CAREER STRATEGIES.....	54
2.5.1. Development of a career strategy	55
2.5.2. Characteristics of a career strategy.....	56
2.5.3. Career strategy models.....	58
2.5.3.1. Career planning wheel.....	58
2.5.3.2. Role demands model.....	61
2.5.4. Types of career strategies.....	63
2.5.4.1. Competence in the present job	63
2.5.4.2. Extended work involvement.....	64
2.5.4.3. Skill development	64
2.5.4.4. Opportunity development.....	64
2.5.4.5. The development of mentor and other supportive alliances	66
2.5.4.6. Image building	66
2.5.4.7. Participating in organisational politics	66

2.5.4.8. Outplacement	67
2.5.5. The content of a career strategy	67
2.5.5.1. Determination of challenges and opportunities	68
2.5.5.2. Determination of strengths and limitations	68
2.5.5.3. Relating of strategic possibilities to personal values	70
2.5.5.4. Relating of career strategy alternatives to social values.....	71
2.5.6. The implementation of a career strategy	71
2.5.6.1. Identifying key tasks	71
2.5.6.2. Reviewing the organisation's culture	71
2.5.6.3. Organising available resources.....	72
2.5.6.4. Developing a control system.....	72
2.5.6.5. Developing standards.....	72
2.5.6.6. Taking corrective action.....	72
2.6. CAREER APPRAISAL	72
2.6.1. Classification of career-related feedback	73
2.6.1.1. The conceptual goal	73
2.6.1.2. The operational goal.....	74
2.6.1.3. Strategy.....	74
2.6.2. Sources of feedback	74
2.6.2.1. Social interactions	74
2.6.2.2. Observations of work and non-work environments	74
2.6.2.3. Self-assessment.....	75
2.6.3. Career appraisal control mechanisms.....	75
2.6.3.1. The "go no-go" control	75
2.6.3.2. The "wait and see" control	75
2.6.3.3. The "early warning" control	76
2.6.4. Guidelines for effective career appraisal.....	77
2.6.4.1. Making revisions.....	77
2.6.4.2. Establishing benchmarks.....	77
2.6.4.3. Learning opportunities and vehicles for accomplishment.....	77
2.6.4.4. Structuring interactions with supervisor to acquire desired information.....	77
2.6.4.5. Sharing experiences.....	78
2.6.4.6. Feedback from non-work sources.....	78
2.7. CONCLUSION	78

CHAPTER 3	79
LITERATURE REVIEW: JOB PERFORMANCE	79
3.1. DEFINING THE CONSTRUCT	79
3.2. ELEMENTS OF JOB PERFORMANCE	80
3.2.1. Ability	80
3.2.1.1. Elements of ability	81
3.2.1.2. Ability deterioration	81
3.2.1.3. Remedies for ability deterioration	82
3.2.1.4. Effects of ability on job performance	84
3.2.2. Motivation (Effort)	84
3.2.2.1. Elements of motivation	85
3.2.2.2. Process of motivation	86
3.2.2.3. Theories of motivation	86
3.3. MODELS OF JOB PERFORMANCE	106
3.3.1. Models of performance content	107
3.3.1.1. The classic model	107
3.3.1.2. The multiple factor model	107
3.3.1.3. The National Research Council model	109
3.3.1.4. The critical task model	109
3.3.1.5. The critical deficiency model	109
3.3.2. Models of performance determinants	110
3.3.2.1. Campbell et al. model	110
3.3.2.2. Hunter model	110
3.3.2.3. Schmidt et al. model	111
3.3.2.4. Borman, White, Pulakos and Oppler model	111
3.4. DETERMINANTS OF JOB PERFORMANCE	111
3.4.1. Non-motivational determinants of job performance	112
3.4.1.1. The probability that the worker will discriminate between stimuli requiring different responses	112
3.4.1.2. The worker's knowledge of the correct response to perform to each stimulus	112
3.4.1.3. The worker's capacity to execute the correct responses	113

3.4.1.4. The nature of the relationship between motivation and performance	113
3.4.2. Motivational determinants of job performance	113
3.4.2.1. Supervision.....	113
3.4.2.2. The work group	115
3.4.2.3. Job content.....	116
3.4.2.4. Wages	118
3.4.2.5. Promotional opportunities	119
3.5. THE MANAGEMENT OF JOB PERFORMANCE	119
3.5.1. The performance management process	120
3.5.2. Performance planning	121
3.5.2.1. Scanning	122 ✓
3.5.2.2. Performance standards	123
3.5.2.3. Action plans.....	126
3.5.3. Managing performance	126
3.5.3.1. Sustaining good performance	126
3.5.3.2. Improving poor performance.....	139
3.5.4. Appraising performance	142
3.5.4.1. Purposes of performance measurement.....	143
3.5.4.2. Classification of performance measurements	144
3.5.4.3. Measures of job performance	145
3.5.4.4. Progress reviews	154
3.5.4.5. Self-evaluation.....	154
3.6. CONCLUSION	155
CHAPTER 4	156
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	156
4.1. INTRODUCTION	156
4.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	156
4.3. PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY	157
4.4. POPULATION	158

4.5. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS.....	159
4.5.1. Career Management Questionnaire.....	159
4.5.1.1. Covering Letter.....	160
4.5.1.2. Biographical Data.....	160
4.5.1.3. Career Exploration Survey (CES).....	161
4.5.1.4. Career Strategies Inventory (CSI).....	170
4.5.2. Job Performance Questionnaire.....	172
4.5.2.1. Covering Letter.....	172
4.5.2.2. Items of the Job Performance Questionnaire.....	173
4.5.2.3. Scoring of the Job Performance Questionnaire.....	174
4.6. THE RESEARCH PROCEDURE.....	174
4.7. RESPONSE RATE.....	175
4.8. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS.....	177
4.8.1. Age.....	177
4.8.2. Gender.....	178
4.8.3. Population group.....	179
4.8.4. Position in the current organisation.....	179
4.8.5. Years employed by current organisation.....	180
4.8.6. Years' experience in current job.....	181
4.8.7. Total years' working experience.....	181
4.8.8. Qualifications.....	182
4.9. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	183
4.10. CONCLUSION.....	184
CHAPTER 5.....	185
DESCRIPTION OF THE RESULTS.....	185
5.1. INTRODUCTION.....	185
5.2. RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS.....	186
5.3. VALIDITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS.....	189

5.4. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION.....	192
5.5. CORRELATION	194
5.6. CANONICAL CORRELATION.....	196
5.7. HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSIS	200
5.8. CONCLUSION	203
CHAPTER 6	204
DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS	204
6.1. INTRODUCTION	204
6.2. FINDINGS	204
6.2.1. Reliability and Validity of Measuring Instruments	205
6.2.2. Major Hypothesis	206
6.2.3. Sub-Hypotheses.....	206
6.2.3.1. Relationship between career exploration and job performance.....	206
6.2.3.2. Relationship between career goal setting and job performance	207
6.2.3.3. Relationship between career strategising and job performance	207
6.2.3.4. Relationship between amount of information and job performance	207
6.2.3.5. Relationship between frequency of career exploration and job performance	208
6.2.3.6. Influence of biographical items on career self-management	208
6.2.4. Other findings.....	210
6.2.5. Conclusive finding	210
6.3. RECOMMENDATIONS	211
6.3.1. Improvement of Job Performance	211
6.3.2. Career Management Literature	211
6.3.3. Career Self-Management as Predictor.....	211

6.4. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS..... 212

6.4.1. More Dependent Variables 212

6.4.2. Career Self-Management Questionnaire..... 213

6.4.3. Measurement of Job Performance 213

6.4.4. Empirical Research..... 213

6.5. THE VALUE OF THIS STUDY 214

6.6. FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES..... 216

6.7. CONCLUSION 217

6.8. SUMMARY 217

REFERENCES 218

APPENDIXES 230

APPENDIX A..... 231

APPENDIX B..... 233

APPENDIX C..... 244

APPENDIX D..... 246

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	: Directness of occupational information	32
Table 2	: Response Rate to Career Management Questionnaire	176
Table 3	: Response Rate to Job Performance Questionnaire	176
Table 4	: Response Rate for both questionnaires	176
Table 5	: The reliability of the Career Exploration Survey (CES)	187
Table 6	: The reliability of the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory (CSI)	188
Table 7	: The reliability of the Job Performance Questionnaire	188
Table 8	: The construct validity of the Career Exploration Survey (CES)	191
Table 9	: The construct validity of the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory (CSI)	191
Table 10	: The construct validity of the Job Performance Questionnaire	192
Table 11	: Analysis of variance on biographical data	193
Table 12	: Correlation between each of the dimensions constituting the independent variable Career Exploration and the dependent variable Job Performance	195
Table 13	: Correlation between each of the dimensions constituting the independent variable Career Strategising and the dependent variable Job Performance	196
Table 14	: Canonical Correlation between independent variable Career Exploration and dependent variable Job Performance.....	198
Table 15	: Canonical Correlation between independent variable Career Goals and dependent variable Job Performance	198
Table 16	: Canonical Correlation between independent variable Career Strategies and dependent variable Job Performance	199
Table 17	: Canonical Correlation between independent variables Career Exploration, Career Goals and Career Strategies (Career Self- Management) and dependent variable Job Performance	200
Table 18	: Hierarchical Regression Results of the relationships between independent variable Career Exploration and dependent variable Job Performance	201

Table 19 : Hierarchical Regression Results between independent variable Career Goals and dependent variable Job Performance	202
Table 20 : Hierarchical Regression Results between independent variable Career Strategies and dependent variable Job Performance	202
Table 21 : Hierarchical Regression Results between independent variables Career Exploration, Career Goals and Career Strategies (Career Self-Management) and dependent variable Job Performance	203

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 : Career Self-Management Model.....	9
Figure 2 : Career Exploration Model.....	14
Figure 3 : The relationship between exploration and goals.....	40
Figure 4 : Blau's model.....	53
Figure 5 : A model of the relationship between career strategising and task/job performance	55
Figure 6 : Career appraisal process	73
Figure 7 : Effects of ability levels on predicted performance levels	84
Figure 8 : The process of motivation	86
Figure 9 : Maslow's Need Hierarchy	87
Figure 10 : Alderfer's Continuum of ERG Needs	89
Figure 11 : Vroom's Motivation Process	93
Figure 12 : Model of Job Performance.....	94
Figure 13 : Goal Setting Theory Model.....	101
Figure 14 : Job Performance Model of Motivation	105
Figure 15 : Armstrong's Performance Management Process	120
Figure 16 : McAfee and Champagne's Performance Management Process	121
Figure 17 : Performance Planning Process	122
Figure 18 : Ilgen et al. model	128
Figure 19 : Ashford et al. model.....	134
Figure 20 : Relationship between feedback and goal specificity.....	135
Figure 21 : Age of individuals in the sample group	178
Figure 22 : Gender of individuals in the sample group	178
Figure 23 : Population of individuals in the sample group.....	179
Figure 24 : Position in the organisation of individuals in the sample group	180
Figure 25 : Years of employment by the current organisation of individuals in the sample group	180
Figure 26 : Years' experience in current job of individuals in the sample group.....	181
Figure 27 : Total years' working experience of individuals in the sample group.....	182
Figure 28 : Qualifications of individuals in the sample group.....	182

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

Work constitutes a major part of an individual's life; it determines the activities to which a person allocates time, effort and resources. Work is thus a defining aspect of life - a primary factor that determines the quality of life.

Work can be defined as any kind of purposeful activity aimed at the completion of either a job or a task. A job refers to a specific group of tasks prescribed as a unit of work. A related series of jobs which follow a fairly predictable pattern as well as a hierarchy of status, constitutes a career. A career can therefore be defined as a line of work that a person expects to pursue for his/her foreseeable working life (Bennett, 1992; French & Saward, 1975; Rosenberg, 1978; Statt, 1991).

Consequently, a career, which is the primary focus of this study, is of utmost importance to any individual because it determines the major activities with which a person will occupy himself / herself. It provides both a major source of personal identity and a medium through which the total personality can express itself. It serves as a means of income, thus determining the individual's standard of living and also impacts on the person's physical and emotional well being, personal success, happiness and sense of fulfilment.

A career, which consists of a pattern of work-related experiences that spans the course of a person's life, starts when an individual makes an occupational choice. The decision-making process takes place over a period of time, where the individual initially engages in tentative career planning. This career planning centres on interests, talents and personal values and later focuses on career choices that could, according to the individual, realistically be implemented (Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994).

It is vitally important that a person's work-related experiences are directed and effectively managed, either by himself/herself or by his/her employer, to ensure the realisation of his/her career values, personal success and job satisfaction.

Career management is the process by which individuals explore and accordingly gather career-related information about their own values, interests, skills, strengths and weaknesses, as well as information about the world of work. This information is utilised to develop a picture of themselves and also of alternative occupations, jobs and organisations. Career goals are then developed along with appropriate career strategies in order to increase the probability that these career goals will be realised (Greenhaus, 1987).

The process of career management has been the focus of various researchers and has invariably led to the development of career management models. In one particular model, developed by Greenhaus et al. (1994), the process of career management is explained as starting with the individual being confused and undecided about his/her career future and being in need of a career decision.

The next step in this process involves exploration - of the self as well as of the environment. Self-exploration enables the individual to gain insight into his/her own needs, values, strengths, weaknesses, interests, abilities, talents, personality style, preferred life-style, limitations etc. On the other hand, environmental exploration involves information gathering with regard to the social, economic, political and geographical settings affecting the individual's career choice (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Realistic career goals, based on personal information as well as on the characteristics of the occupational prospects, are then developed. The formulation of career strategies forms the essence of the next step in the career management process. These career strategies enable the individual to achieve his/her career goals. Lastly, career appraisal takes place, where feedback, pertaining to the effectiveness of the career strategies and the relevance of the career goals, is obtained. This feedback enables the individual to draw conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the career management process (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The primary responsibility for career management remains with the individual: "... pressure for effective career management is the very nature of the contemporary

employee - active and assertive - who demands a high degree of control over his/her career and life" (Greenhaus et al., 1994, p.11). The individual, therefore, has to take responsibility for managing his/her career - and his/her working life in total.

The career management model by Greenhaus et al. (1994) will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

It has been believed that career "self"-management has a direct impact on the job performance of an individual. Individuals most likely to achieve career success and perform better at their jobs are those who understand themselves, know how to detect changes in the environment, manage these changes effectively, create opportunities for themselves, learn from their mistakes, set goals and strategies and obtain feedback regarding their progress towards these career goals (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

It appears that only limited empirical research has investigated the relationship between the career self-management process and job performance to date. Previous studies of career self-management have mainly focused on one aspect of the career management process – either career exploration, career goal setting, career strategising or career appraising. Also, the majority of studies used student samples, instead of working individuals who utilise these career management principles on a regular basis. Most other studies of career management have used outcome measurements related to personal effectiveness, such as satisfaction with occupational choice and career information, and have not focused on outcomes related to performance.

Noe (1996) was the first to conduct a study on the relationship between career self-management and job performance. He found that career self-management was not significant statistically related to job performance. The conclusion was therefore drawn that both good and poor performers engaged in similar amounts of career activities.

Noe (1996) argued, however, that his study had several limitations, which might have affected the results and conclusions thereof. His study thus represented an "initial

attempt” to investigate the relationship between the career management process and job performance.

Many human resource professionals have advocated the use of career management systems because of the purported link between career self-management and job performance (Beehr, Taber & Walsh, 1980, cited in Gould & Penley, 1984; Hall, 1986; Leibowitz & Schlossberg, 1981, cited in Noe, 1996; London & Mone, 1987).

The research on the relationship between career self-management and job performance, therefore, seems contradictory. On the one hand the career development school proposes that a significant relationship *does* exist between the two constructs, whilst on the other hand Noe (1996) found that no statistically significant relationship exists.

The purpose of this research study was, therefore, to re-investigate the research problem, but without the above-mentioned shortcomings present in Noe’s study, and to draw conclusions regarding the significance of the relationship between career self-management and job performance.

1.3. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Without objectives that direct and guide a study, research is meaningless. A general objective and other more specific objectives were, therefore, set at the onset of this study.

1.3.1. General objective

The general objective of this study was to define the two constructs, i.e. career self-management and job performance, and to establish the significance of the statistical relationship between them.

1.3.2. Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the research were as follows:

- To theoretically investigate the construct *career self-management* in a literature survey;

- To determine the major components / elements of the construct *career self-management*;
- To theoretically investigate the construct *job performance* in a literature survey;
- To determine the major components / elements that comprise *job performance*;
- To select a questionnaire from the literature that measures career self-management;
- To select a questionnaire from the literature that measures job performance;
- To select a representative sample that can be generalised to the population, with certain characteristics as stated by Noe (1996);
- To determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between career self-management and job performance;
- To determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between the various components / elements of career self-management and job performance.

1.4. FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses that were investigated during the course of this study, pertaining to the question "Is career self-management related to job performance?" were:

Major Hypothesis:

A statistically significant relationship exists between career self-management and job performance.

Sub Hypothesis 1:

A statistically significant relationship exists between career exploration and job performance.

Sub Hypothesis 2:

A statistically significant relationship exists between the amount of information obtained during career exploration and job performance.

Sub Hypothesis 3:

A statistically significant relationship exists between frequency of career exploration and job performance.

Sub Hypothesis 4:

A statistically significant relationship exists between career goal focus and job performance.

Sub Hypothesis 5:

A statistically significant relationship exists between the extent to which career strategies are utilised and job performance.

Sub Hypothesis 6:

Biographical factors (age, gender, population group, position in the current organisation, years employed by the current organisation, years' experience in the current job, total years' working experience and qualifications) significantly influence the career self-management behaviour and activities of individuals.

1.5. CONCLUSION

This research was aimed at making a contribution to the field of occupational psychology, and more specifically to career management.

The expected outcome of this study was to confirm the existence of a significant statistical relationship between career self-management and job performance and thus to re-affirm the purported link between the two variables, as proposed by the career development school.

If, however, the alternative hypothesis was found to be correct, i.e. that no statistically significant relationship exists between the two constructs, it would serve as confirmation of Noe's findings (1996) and provide support for his results and conclusions.

In order to draw conclusions from this research regarding the statistical significance of the relationship between the two constructs, a literature survey and an empirical investigation were conducted. Chapter 2 will accordingly give an overview of the literature survey that was conducted on the first construct, career self-management,

and Chapter 3 will present the literature survey on the other variable, namely job performance.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT

This Chapter provides an overview of the literature survey that was conducted on the construct *career self-management*. The literature survey includes inter alia a model of career self-management and also specific career self-management activities / processes, i.e. career exploration, career goal setting, career strategising and career appraisal.

2.1. INTRODUCTION

“When you change what you do, you change who you are” (Sydney Harris, cited in Souerwine, 1978, p.88).

A career is an extension of the individual - it is an indication of the core of his/her being - an expression of what and who he/she actually is. The importance of a career can never be under-estimated or over-expressed. The onus, however, rests on the individual to nurture and manage his/her career effectively to ensure that the work-related experiences that span the course of his/her life become pleasurable, productive and satisfying.

To manage a career is to make a series of decisions. Career management is the process by which individuals make reasoned, appropriate decisions about their work life. It is also an approach to problem solving that can be used to address a wide variety of career decisions (Greenhaus, 1987).

According to Schein (1978) career self-management is a continuous process in which an individual pursues an occupation and determines the direction of his/her career.

2.2. CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT MODEL

Greenhaus et al. (1994, p.18) developed the mentioned normative career self-management model that portrays how individuals *should* manage their careers. This particular model was used as a yardstick for this study (Refer to Figure 1).

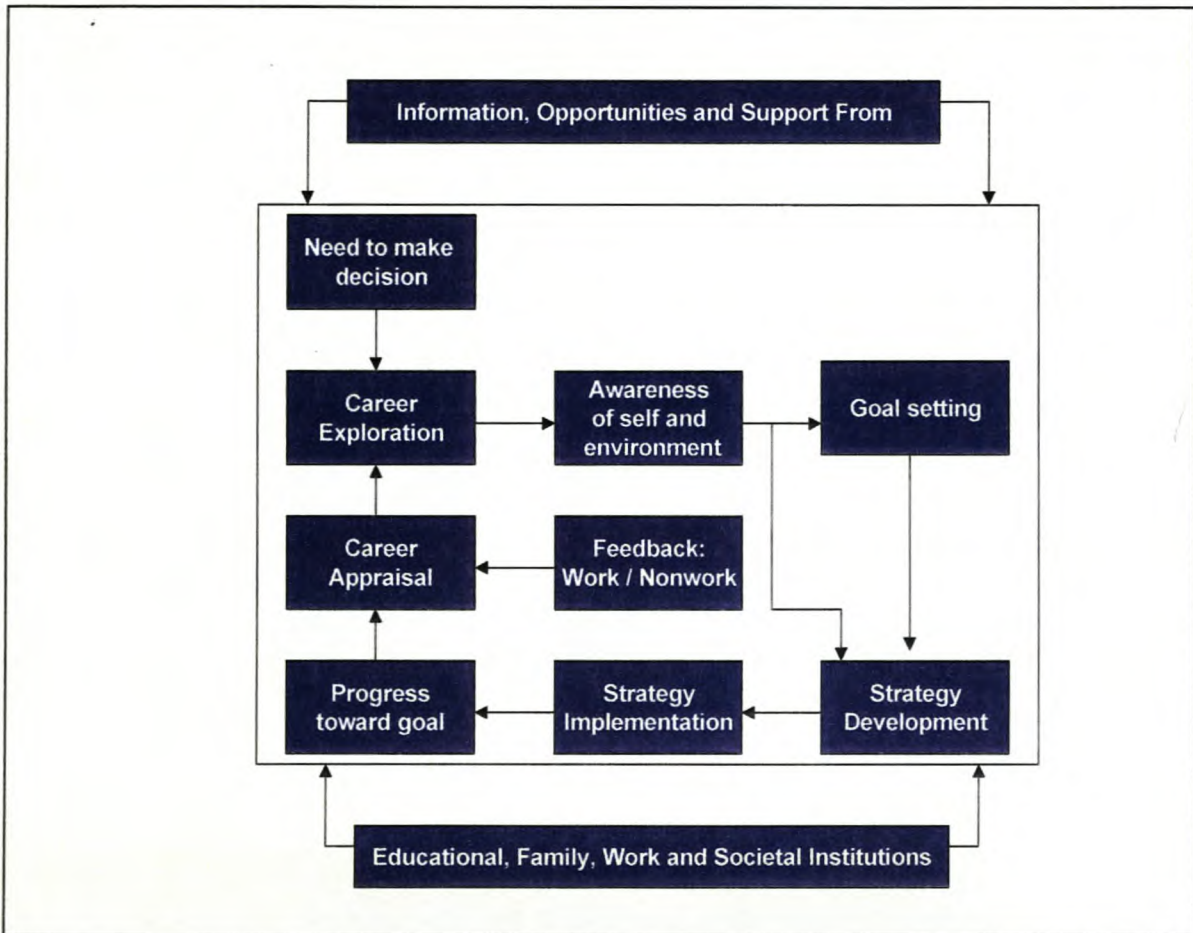


Figure 1: Career Self-Management Model

(Greenhaus et al., 1994)

The career management process starts when an individual develops a need to make a career decision. According to the model, this need then causes the individual to engage in career exploration activities. Career exploration is “the collection and analysis of information regarding career-related issues” (Greenhaus et al., 1994, p.20). According to Sugalski and Greenhaus (1986) participation in exploratory activities promotes an understanding of self and the environment. This does not suggest that career exploration is either easy or guaranteed to provide profound and useful information, but it does mean that career self-management can be more effective if it is based on accurate and useful information (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Self-exploration refers to the gathering of information on aspects such as values, personality, preferred life-style, interests, abilities, strengths, weaknesses and talents, that can assist the individual in understanding himself/herself better and, therefore, in managing his/her career more efficiently. On the other hand, environmental exploration implies an analysis of the environment surrounding the individual. Environmental aspects that the individual might contemplate include possible occupations worth considering, alternative jobs available within a particular organisation or within other external organisations, the family's needs and aspirations, the relationship between work life and family life and a spouse's career values (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

With regard to career exploration, similarities between the model of Greenhaus et al. (1994) and other career decision-making models can be distinguished.

In their model Kinnier and Krumboltz (1984, cited in Lock, 1992) referred to career exploration as *self-assessment* and *information gathering and processing* respectively. The *information gathering and processing* phase of Kinnier et al. (1984) includes aspects similar to the environmental exploration step in the career self-management model of Greenhaus et al. (1994), i.e. the social, economic, political and geographical settings surrounding the individual that influence career choices. On the other hand, *self-assessment* includes activities similar to those set out in the career self-exploration phase of the Greenhaus et al. model (1994).

Lock (1992) utilises another model in attempting to explain the career planning process. His model also refers to self-exploration and environmental exploration. He mentions two steps in his model - *study your environment* and *study yourself* - which can be directly linked to the environmental exploration and self-exploration in the model of Greenhaus et al. (1994).

If the first step in the career management model - career exploration - is conducted properly, it should enhance the individual's awareness of himself/herself as well as of the environment: "Awareness is a relatively complete and accurate perception of one's qualities and the characteristics of one's relevant environment" (Greenhaus et al., 1994, p.23).

Awareness plays an important role in the process of career self-management. A deep awareness of self and the environment enables the individual to set appropriate,

realistic career goals and to develop relevant career strategies (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Flowing from an awareness of self and the environment, is career goal-setting. One of the most consistent research findings underlying the importance of career goals, is that employees who are committed to specific, challenging goals outperform those employees who either lack career goals or lack commitment to those goals (Locke, Latham & Erez, 1988, cited in Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Greenhaus et al. (1994, p.24) defines a career goal as “a desired career-related outcome that a person intends to attain”. Career goals are beneficial in the sense that they direct an individual’s attention and efforts towards something specific, concrete, realistic and obtainable (Riley, 1997).

Various studies have found that a relationship exists between career goals and career effectiveness, career resilience, job involvement and successful job search (Noe, Noe & Bachhuber, 1990, cited in Greenhaus et al., 1994; Noe & Steffy, 1987, cited in Greenhaus et al., 1994). The third step in the career self-management model, namely career goal-setting, can, therefore, be regarded as a critical step in the process of managing a career.

Kinnier et al. (1984, cited in Lock, 1992) also address career goal-setting in their career decision-making model, which establishes *probable outcome investigation and goal selection* as a step in assisting the individual with career decisions.

Following career goal-setting in the career self-management model, is the formulation of career strategies. “A career strategy is a sequence of activities designed to help an individual attain a career goal” (Greenhaus et al., 1994, p.25).

Various career strategies can be utilised to realise career goals. The career strategies are thus the “vehicles” that enable the individual to “arrive” at his/her desired career *destinations*. Career strategies can include a wide spectrum of activities, e.g. competence in the present job, visiposure, image building, extended work involvement, taking part in organisational politics, the development of supportive relationships, networking and self-nomination (Greenhaus et al., 1994; Noe, 1996; Souerwine, 1978).

The next step in the career self-management process is that of career appraisal. Greenhaus et al. (1994) define career appraisal as the process by which individuals

acquire and utilise career-related feedback. Career appraisal thus enable the individual to evaluate his/her career goals and strategies and determine whether they are still correct and applicable to his/her current situation.

Kinnier et al. (1984) refer to this career appraisal phase in their model as *the evaluation of plans*, whilst Lock (1992) describes this phase as *obtaining feedback* (Lock, 1992).

Career appraisal enables an individual to monitor the course of his/her career and represents the feedback function of career management. The information derived from these career appraisals not only enhances the individual's awareness of self and the environment, but also provides a feedback loop that perpetuates career exploration and the entire career self-management cycle (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.3. CAREER EXPLORATION

The first phase of the career management model, namely career exploration, will accordingly be reviewed in more detail.

2.3.1. Introduction

Selecting a career or making a career change has a significant influence on a person's life and should be a meticulously planned endeavour. Career exploration has been widely recognised and endorsed as a necessary step in career self-management.

The value of career exploration is seen in the fruits of the effort: an individual who explores emerges from the experience with a clearer and more accurate assessment of him- or herself and a realistic, justified basis for taking decisive action (Jordaan, 1963, cited in Phillips, 1982). It is thus vitally important that an individual conducts extensive and appropriate career exploration before making career decisions.

Greenhaus and Callanan (1994, p.20) defines career exploration as "the collection and analysis of information on career-related issues".

Career exploration is also defined as the variety of cognitive and behavioural activities designed to generate information about the individual and the

environment, which is used to prepare for, enter, adjust to, or progress in an occupation (Solberg, Brown, Good, Fischer & Nord, 1995).

Jordaan (1963) states that exploratory behaviour refers to mental or physical activities that elicit information about the self or the environment. According to Berlyne (1965, cited in Stumpf, Colarelli & Hartman, 1983), the information referred to characteristically had not previously been part of the individual's stimulus field.

Participation in exploratory activities therefore promotes an understanding of the self and the environment (Sugalski et al., 1986). Career exploration thus consists of self-exploration and environmental exploration, depending on the type of information that is sought.

Self-exploration provides an individual with a deeper understanding of personal qualities such as interests, abilities, personality, work values and preferred life-style. According to Van der Spuy (1996), the understanding of the self, and in particular chief motivators or drivers, may prove to be more difficult than initially conceived and involves a thorough process of self-analysis and introspection. This need to explore the self and career options never really ceases, since employees must regularly make decisions about their career and life goals (Sugalski et al., 1986).

On the other hand, environmental exploration provides an individual with knowledge of different occupations, organisations and career opportunities.

2.3.2. A model of career exploration

Stumpf et al. (1983) proposed a model that explains the concept of career exploration (Refer to Figure 2). Behaviour that the individual displays towards career exploration is defined in the process of exploration. The information sought, or sought but not obtained, subsequently influences affective reactions to the exploration process. Beliefs about the value of future exploratory behaviour are a function of past experience (London & Stumpf, 1982, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983).

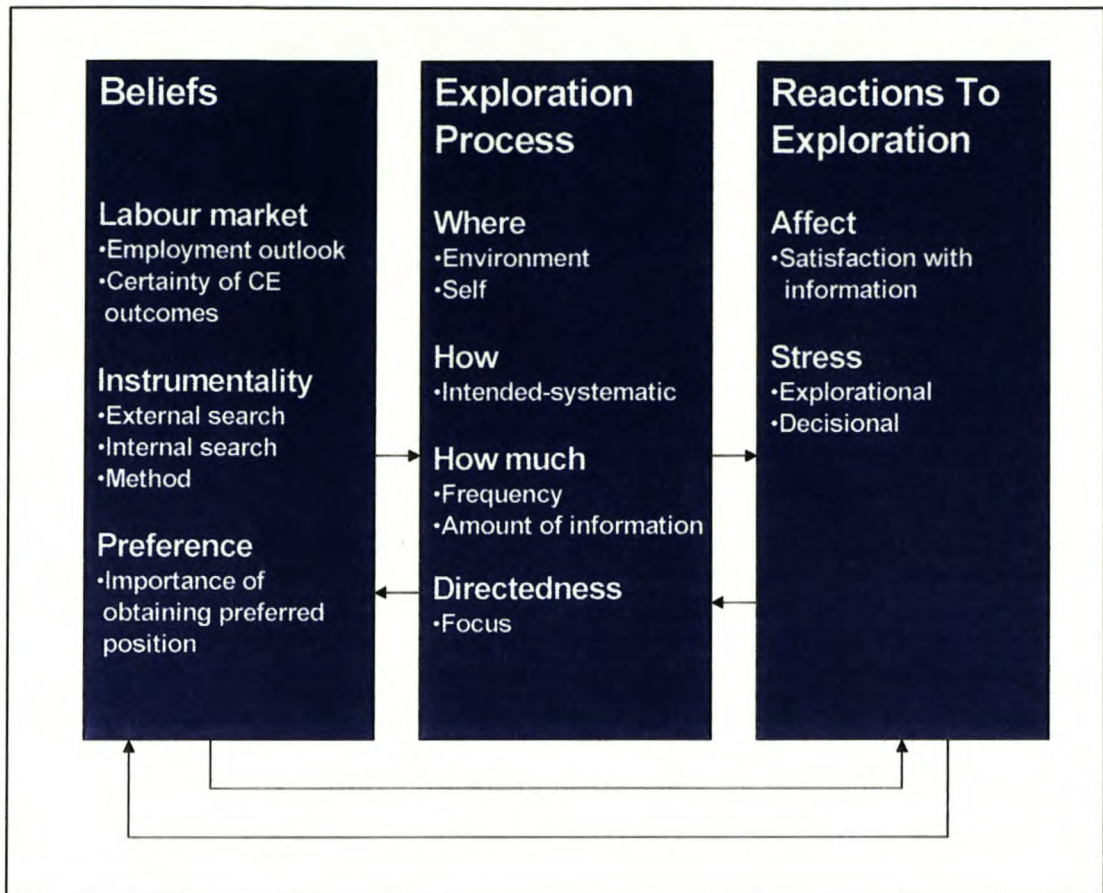


Figure 2: Career Exploration Model

(Stumpf et al., 1983)

2.3.2.1. The exploration process

The process of exploration involves four components: (1) *where* the exploration takes place, (2) *how* the exploration is conducted, (3) *how much* exploration is done, and (4) *what* is explored, i.e. the focus of exploration (Noe, 1996; Stumpf et al., 1983).

Where - Career information can be gathered from various sources, but two major sources can be distinguished, i.e. the environment and the self (London et al., 1987; Mihal, Sorce & Comte, cited in Noe et al., 1987; Stumpf et al., 1983).

How - Exploration can be conducted in two ways: intended and systematic or fortuitous and random (Stumpf & Colarelli, 1980). According to London et al. (1987) some people gather information systematically by making lists of people to talk to for information and

advice or they experiment with different career activities, trying out new roles and new skills. Others are less systematic in their search process. They pick up bits and pieces of information as they do their jobs or they speak to people they happen to meet rather than making an effort to talk to people they respect or who are in a position to have accurate and thorough information.

How much - The third component refers to the frequency of exploration and the amount of information acquired. Frequency can be measured by calculating the average number of times that an individual seeks career information over a certain period of time. The amount of information refers to the volume of information that the individual acquires on occupations, jobs, organisations and himself/herself.

This component has been found to be related with career outcomes such as length of unemployment (Dyer, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983), non-wage income (Barron & Gilley, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983) and affective reactions to the job (Gutteridge & Ullman, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983).

What - The focus of the exploration refers to how sure the individual feels of his/her preference for a particular occupation, job and organisation. Individuals with a few, clearly defined areas to explore are likely to exhibit different career exploration processes than those individuals with many, less clearly focused career goals (Stumpf et al., 1980; Stumpf et al., 1983).

2.3.2.2. Reactions to exploratory behaviour

Resulting from exploration, an individual develops feelings about the information acquired or not yet acquired. Two major reactions can occur as a result of the career exploration process: satisfaction and / or stress.

If the individual is satisfied with the information available, subsequent exploration processes are likely to change (March & Simon, cited in

Stumpf et al., 1983). "Where one explores may be altered, how one explores may become less intended and systematic, the amount of exploration may decrease, and focus may increase" (Barak, Carney & Archibald, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983, p.193).

The other reaction to career exploration, namely stress, can be divided into two types: explorational stress is felt as a function of the career exploration process, whilst decisional stress is felt as a function of the career decision making process. Stress is experienced to the extent that an individual is uncertain whether he/she will be able to obtain the desired or valued outcomes (Beehr & Schuler, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983). Stress that may have been experienced by the individual during the course of the exploration process may, therefore, affect future exploratory behaviours and/or beliefs about the utility of those behaviours (Greenhaus & Sklarew, 1981; Greenhaus & Sklarew, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983; Hawkins, Bradley & White, 1977).

2.3.2.3. Beliefs about exploratory behaviour

According to Wanous (1977) career exploration is a conscious process during which individuals act upon a set of beliefs and perceptions, regardless of whether these beliefs and perceptions are realistic.

Career exploration is a step in the career self-management process that goes hand in hand with uncertainty (Berlyne, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983). Two dimensions of certainty are relevant, i.e. the employment outlook as well as the certainty of obtaining career goals, which includes the preferred career choice. The employment outlook of an individual is formed by perceptions of the economy and the labour market and refers to how favourable the employment possibilities look within the individual's career area. The certainty of obtaining career goals is more specific to the individual and refers to the degree of certainty the individual feels that he/she will attain a

desired position as a result of his/her skills, experience and networks (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983).

External search instrumentality and internal search instrumentality are two components of career exploration. External search instrumentality is the probability that exploring the environment for career opportunities will lead to obtaining career goals, whilst internal search instrumentality is the probability that reflection on past career behaviour will lead to obtaining career goals. Both the internal and external search instrumentalities affect not only an individual's motivation to search, but also the way and / or the method in which this search is to be conducted (Wanous, 1977).

Greenhaus (1971) argues that individuals vary in the degree to which they value the achievement of various career objectives. Waterman and Waterman (1976) support this argument in their statement that exploration patterns may differ according to the importance of the objects of career exploration.

2.3.3. Self-exploration

Self-exploration is a critical step in enabling an individual to select a career or to make a career change. People may not know themselves nearly as well as they think they do. Some may not have a clear understanding of what they really want from a job and from life, some may have incomplete insights into their abilities, i.e. persistently underestimate their competence, while others may overestimate their strengths in certain areas (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The main purpose of self-exploration is, therefore, to provide the individual with a greater awareness of his / her personal qualities, i.e. abilities, interests, work values, personality and preferred life-style (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.3.3.1. Personal qualities

Ability

Many people choose occupations that require abilities they do not possess or, alternatively, people do not take advantage of the talents

that they do possess (Greenhaus et al., 1994). Therefore, in order to manage their careers more effectively, it is important that individuals know where their strengths and weaknesses are in terms of their abilities.

Abilities are referred to as talents, aptitudes, capabilities or capacities (Lock, 1992). Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996, p.54) define the concept of ability as "what the person can do now, or will be potentially able to do in future". Greenhaus et al. (1994, p.40) add to that when defining ability as a reflection of "what a person can do or could do with proper training". Ability is also defined as a broad and stable characteristic that is responsible for a person's maximum performance on mental and physical tasks (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995).

Various abilities can be distinguished, e.g. physical abilities (motor co-ordination, colour discrimination, eye-hand-foot co-ordination, etc.), intellectual abilities (logical reasoning, problem solving, etc.), emotional strengths (empathy, affection, etc.), organisational abilities (planning, goal setting, etc.) and career planning abilities (self-analysing, information gathering, evaluating information, etc.).

An individual has to possess knowledge of his / her own abilities to be able to make effective career decisions and thus to manage his / her own career more effectively.

Interests

Interests refer to a preference for a particular subject or activity (Greenhaus et al., 1994). Osipow et al. (1996, p.56) define the term as "the movement towards liked activities and the movement away from disliked activities". In summary it can be said that interests are expressions of what a person likes to do.

Different people have different interests. Holland identified six general interest orientations: realistic, investigative, social, conventional, enterprising and artistic. Individuals with a realistic orientation tend to be more practical and task-orientated, while investigative types are more scientific, scholarly and research-

orientated. In contrast, individuals in the social category are more humanistic, personal and value-orientated. The conventional style reflects an orientation towards structure, tradition and detail, while artistic people prefer unstructured situations, where creativity and self-expression are possible. An enterprising designation indicates a preference for entrepreneurial, managerial and goal-centred activities (Greenhaus et al., 1994; Neethling, 1987).

Research evidence suggests that congruence between interests and career choice is related to subsequent job satisfaction and tenure in the job. People, who choose career fields that are compatible with their interests, thus tend to be more satisfied (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Accordingly, it is evident that a person has to become aware of his / her interests to be able to select the most suitable occupation, make the correct career decisions and manage his / her career more effectively.

Values

It is not unusual for people to have an apparently successful career and yet be unhappy in what they do. People often know that they are unhappy with their work, but they do not know why. One major cause of such dissatisfaction is the existence of conflict between an individual's values and his / her position (Divita, 1992).

"A value is anything to which a person gives worth, merit or usefulness. It is a quality that makes something desirable" (Lock, 1992, p.238). Another definition of a value is offered by Kreitner et al. (1995, p.97) when describing it as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence". Raths, Harmin and Simon (cited in Lock, 1992, p.239) view values as the results of the valuing process and describes the process as "...choosing freely, choosing from alternatives, choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each

alternative, prizing and cherishing, affirming, acting upon choices and repeating or acting with consistency”.

Based on the above-mentioned definitions, it can be concluded that work values are abstract outcomes that an individual wants to attain in his/her work life. Sixteen work values are distinguished by Greenhaus et al. (1994), i.e. altruism, aesthetics, prestige, management, creativity, intellectual stimulation, independence, achievement, economic returns, security, surroundings, supervisory relations, associates, variety and way of life.

Every person has a unique combination of these values that are personally significant. People, therefore, differ with regard to the importance they place on different values. Values are already acquired in early childhood, through contact with the environment and relationships with other people, i.e. parents, siblings, relatives, friends, teachers, institutions and all parts of the community and society.

Understanding and knowing one's values, especially one's work values, can provide considerable insight into career aspirations. A study of work values is also fundamental to career decision making, career planning and career management.

Occupations vary in the extent to which they satisfy the work values of an individual. If one's work values are expressed in occupational life, then work takes on meaning and purpose and becomes a joy rather than a curse, but if one's work values remain unsatisfied, work and life itself grows stale, flat and boring.

There is considerable evidence that people tend to be more satisfied with jobs in which they have an opportunity to attain significant work values (Lock, 1992). This suggests that organisational work values, the work values emphasised within an organisation, may influence the attractiveness of work environments to individuals (Judge & Bretz, 1992).

Therefore, it is of critical importance for individuals to know exactly what their work values are, in order to base informed career decisions on that knowledge.

Personality

Personality is defined as “the combination of stable physical and mental characteristics that give the individual his/her identity” (Kreitner et al., 1995, p.89). Lock (1992) describes personality as a pattern of values, attitudes and behaviours that represent the ways in which a person thinks and acts.

Personality traits of people can be organised into six categories, namely realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional traits.

The *realistic* type refers to people that have a preference for working with their hands and see themselves as practical, stable and mechanically and physically skilled.

The *investigative* type is characterised by people who enjoy research activities and see themselves as intellectual, creative, scholarly, original and critical.

The *artistic* type includes people that regard themselves as being expressive, intuitive, imaginative, creative, artistically talented and aesthetically orientated.

The *social* type refers to people that like to work co-operatively with other people, have a strong concern for the well-being of others, enjoys training and informing other people and like to solve other people's personal problems.

The *enterprising* type scores high on activities like leading, controlling and persuading other people in order to attain personal or organisational goals. Enterprising people see themselves as energetic, ambitious, enthusiastic, self-confident, adventurous, in control of situations and skilled in leadership and speaking.

The *conventional* type includes individuals who like things neatly in place, i.e. they want to know exactly what is expected of them and what they are supposed to do. These people see themselves as individuals that are self-controlled, stable, dependable, systematic, persistent, efficient, orderly and dependable (Arthur, Hall & Lawrence, 1989; Ball, 1984; Brown, Brooks & Associates, 1990; Feldman, 1988; Greenhaus et al., 1994; Gothard, 1985; Kaplan, 1990; Lock, 1992; Neethling, 1987).

Another important personality trait of which an individual should take cognisance, is locus of control. Individuals vary in terms of how much personal responsibility they take for their behaviour and its consequences. People tend to either attribute the causes of their behaviour to themselves or to their environment. People, who believe that they control the events and consequences that affect their lives, possess an internal locus of control. These people ascribe both positive and negative outcomes to their own abilities. On the other hand there are those people who believe that their performance is the product of circumstances beyond their immediate control. These individuals possess an external locus of control and tend to attribute outcomes to environmental causes such as luck or fate (Coetsee, 1996; Kreitner et al., 1995; Waddell, 1983).

"Internals have a tendency to believe they control the work environment through their behaviour and will, therefore, attempt to exert control over their work setting." (Kreitner et al., 1995, p.93.) Career self-management, career decision making, career goal setting and career exploration will, therefore, be conducted by individuals with an internal locus of control, rather than individuals with an external locus of control.

Research suggests that individuals are more satisfied at work when there is congruence between personality and the environment in which the person works (Arthur et al., 1989; Lock, 1992). Therefore, career decisions must be taken and career self-management must be done in accordance with the knowledge of personality

preferences. In so doing, an individual can significantly increase his/her work satisfaction.

Life-style

It is important to examine the significance of non-work interests to individuals, because even though the individual might be satisfied in a specific position, the life-style associated with that specific position might not suit the person and, therefore, influence the attractiveness of the position.

An understanding of a desired life-style requires answers to the following questions: What type of family life do I want? How can community or leisure activities satisfy my basic needs? How important is career success in my total life? What type of life-style is most desirable? Which of my values, interests and talents are best met outside of work? Which of my values, interests and talents are best met in the world of work?

A thorough analysis of a preferred life-style is critical for a number of reasons. *Firstly*, it is likely that some basic values may be difficult or impossible to satisfy at work. *Secondly*, some career fields or jobs can take so much time or emotion that little time is left for private lives. *Thirdly*, there is evidence that the importance of non-work and leisure activities may fluctuate over the course of a person's life (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

An individual should, therefore, become "au fait" with his/her life-style needs, which will enable him/her to better select an initial career, manage this career more effectively and make more informed career decisions.

2.3.3.2. Effective self-exploration techniques

According to Clawson, Kotter, Faux and McArthur (cited in Greenhaus et al., 1994), self-exploration involves the collection of data about the self, i.e. abilities, interests, values, personality and

preferred life-style. This data then needs to be organised into meaningful and understandable themes for interpretation.

In order to do self-assessment and gather data, certain techniques have to be utilised to generate this data. These techniques can be placed in three categories, i.e. individual assessment instruments, career planning systems and informal self-exploration.

Individual assessment instruments

A number of assessment instruments are available to assist individuals in the self-exploration phase and therefore to gain a better understanding of themselves.

Psychological assessment tests and instruments should serve as a guide to people. These tests "are not intended to be, nor should they be used as, the conclusive answer to one's career direction" (Greenhaus et al., 1994, p.44).

Behavioural constructs that can be measured by means of the assessment instruments include inter alia: ability, personality, interests, values, life-style, vocational preferences, intellectual ability, etc.

Some of the assessment instruments have also been validated to ensure that these instruments are suitable for the diverse South African population.

Integrated career planning systems

Taylor defined career planning systems as "sophisticated vocational assessment methods designed to further individual growth with regard to career planning and decision-making issues and thereby facilitate the individual's career development" (Greenhaus et al., 1994, p.44).

One of the main goals of the career planning systems is to help individuals to explore themselves and in the process discover

important career-related information about themselves, i.e. interests, abilities, values and personality style.

Career planning systems can be categorised into three groups according to the form of delivery and the methodology: paper-and-pencil based, computer-assisted and curricular (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

A career planning system should be used as one of several aids in gaining a better understanding of one's personal preferences and needs, but career direction and career selection should not be based solely on a career planning system.

Informal self-exploration

Various informal techniques are available to individuals for self-exploration purposes. Greenhaus et al. (1994) states that it is advisable that all results from informal self-exploration should be shared with trusted individuals, i.e. parents, spouses, other family members, close friends, co-workers, managers, etc. Discussing the results obtained from the exploration activities thus enables individuals to gain additional insight on themselves. This feedback from "objective bystanders" is important, because it confronts individuals on rationalisations, assumptions and delusions (Feldman, 1988).

According to Greenhaus et al. (1994) activities for informal self-exploration can include:

- A written interview: a personal life story including educational experiences, hobbies, work experiences, significant people in one's life, changes and turning points in one's life, key decisions and projections into the future;
- Life-style representation: a narrative and pictorial portrayal of one's life;
- Ranking significant work values;
- Analysing "peak" (high and low) experiences in life;
- Analysing one's current job satisfactions and job dissatisfactions;

- Describing an ideal job;
- Fantasising about one's future.

Theme Identification

Information is most useful when it is organised into coherent, understandable units. Therefore, after the completion of various inventories, exercises and psychometric tests during the self-exploration phase, it is of critical importance to make sense out of the data.

Tendencies have to be analysed, i.e. themes that have emerged must be discovered. The purpose of themes is to combine values, interests, personality styles and abilities into meaningful wholes.

The individual has to scrutinise the specific data for clues about what it is saying, then has to draw preliminary hypotheses about the presence of certain themes and also has to test the data to either confirm or reject the hypotheses (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The following steps can be followed to identify themes:

1. Examine each data-generating instrument for the presence of themes.
2. Look for data across the different data generating devices that support or deny the presence of a theme. The more consistently the theme emerges from the data, the more likely the theme is important.
3. Label the themes in as descriptive a manner as possible.
4. Assess the accuracy and importance of the themes. Consider supporting data, the number of instruments that have identified the theme and also contradictory evidence. The fewer the contradictions, the more accurate the theme (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.3.3.3. Identification of career anchors

"Career anchors are the result of the early interaction between the individual and the work environment" (Schein, 1978, p.125).

Career anchors function as a set of driving and constraining forces on career decisions and career choices. It is thus very important to include the analysis of career anchors as part of an individual's self-exploration (Schein, 1995).

A career anchor consists of three components: *self-perceived talents and abilities* (based on actual successes in a variety of work settings); *self-perceived motives and needs* (based on opportunities for self-tests and self-diagnosis in real situations and on feedback from other people) and *self-perceived attitudes and values* (based on actual encounters between the individual and the norms and values of the employing organisation and work setting) (Schein, 1978).

According to Schein (1978) five different types of career anchors can be distinguished:

- technical / functional competence
- managerial competence
- security
- autonomy
- creativity

Individuals that have a *technical* or *functional* orientation towards their jobs, would tend to stay in positions that centre around their areas of competence and expertise. Success for such individuals is determined more by feedback that they are experts in their fields and by increasingly challenging work than by promotions or monetary rewards (Schein, 1978).

The *managerially* anchored individual is concerned with the size of the task, the degree of the challenge and the amount of responsibility. Promotions, rank and income measure success for these individuals (Schein, 1978).

Security is defined as wanting to know the future and to avoid being exposed to unpredictable risks. Individuals anchored in security, tend to do what is required of them by their employers in order to maintain job security, a decent income and a stable future (Schein, 1978).

The *creative* individual is one who wants autonomy, managerial competence and the opportunity to exercise his/her special talents. Individuals in this category do things distinctively different than others and they want to own the results of their originality (Schein, 1978).

Individuals that have career anchors of *autonomy* and independence seek positions that are maximally free of organisational constraints. They normally find organisational life to be restrictive, irrational and intrusive into their private lives. Individuals in this category act to increase the amount of control they have over their own working lives. They resist attempts by organisations to put them in boxes (Schein, 1978).

Career anchors evolve through a process of searching, which involves testing oneself in various kinds of settings and on different kinds of jobs, until a clearer picture of talents, needs and values is developed.

The self-exploration stage thus provides a valuable opportunity for the individual to gain knowledge of his/her career anchor. It is evident, therefore, that taking this career anchor into consideration when managing a career, is extremely important.

2.3.3.4. Benefits of self-exploration

Self-exploration holds several benefits for the individual. *Firstly*, it makes people confront their own personal responsibilities in managing their careers, because these self-assessment exercises force individuals to face the choices they have made in the past, the consequences of those choices as well as the possible consequences of future career choices. *Secondly*, self-exploration exercises are also frequently an impetus for change - employees learn that career changes are possible and that a variety of options are open to most people. Self-exploration also holds another benefit for individuals in that it enables them to take a long-term perspective on their careers. *Lastly*, career self-exploration also encourages individuals to experiment and to try new tasks. Implicit to self-

exploration is the idea of broadening oneself, in terms of both work responsibilities and personal interests (Feldman, 1988).

2.3.3.5. Concluding remarks

In the past, a paradox existed as individuals expected employers to be responsible for career planning and development, yet they also wanted to have a greater influence on decisions and results. Success nowadays is, however, dependent on individuals becoming proactive and effective diagnosticians - to be able to identify career opportunities and threats and to operate with maximum self insight (Van der Spuy, 1996).

Self-exploration is, therefore, of utmost importance in that the results thereof are necessary for the setting of career goals and career strategies and for effective career management.

Self-exploration could produce feelings of anxiety and doubt and could also cause one to be uncomfortable, since the results may prove insufficient, inconclusive or contradictory.

Although self-exploration is a critical activity, it is important to remember when conducting self-exploration, that all self-exploration devices are merely "vehicles" to supply potentially useful information and that no device can give exact representations of an individual.

2.3.4. Environmental exploration

Self-exploration is an essential component of effective career self-management, but it only represents half of the equation. Environmental exploration is also of great importance, because careers can never be separated from the environment - careers are "embedded in" occupations, jobs and organisations.

The aim of career exploration is thus to understand environments in the light of the information derived from self-exploration. A bridge should hence be built between self-exploration and the environment (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

People differ with regard to their specific values, abilities, interests and personality styles. On the other hand, work environments differ in the extent to which they are compatible with a person's particular attributes. By assessing the environment, the individual can "match" these attributes to a specific environment (Dziuban, Tango & Hynes, 1994).

Greenhaus et al. (1994) defines environmental exploration as learning more about some aspects of the environment.

The importance of environmental exploration was emphasised by research findings from a survey conducted in America in 1990. In the survey, 65% of the respondents said that, if they had to do it over again, they would seek more information about job choices and job options. Additionally, 62% of the respondents indicated that the information regarding career options was insufficient. The respondents recommended that there has to be a greater access to information and more professional assistance must be offered regarding careers (Bailey, Bruce, Rotter & Sampson, 1992).

Environmental exploration may vary according to the type of information that is required. For a student, environmental exploration might be focused more on occupations, whereas the environmental exploration of employed people might be orientated more towards alternative jobs within a specific organisation or alternative jobs in other organisations (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Although there are many aspects about the environment that should be investigated, the most important aspects include: occupations, jobs, organisations and families (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.3.4.1. Occupational information

"You are only as good as your information", is a saying that can be applied to occupational information. The better the occupational information, the more informed decisions individuals can make (Lock, 1992). According to Webb (1994, p.40) "there is no less at stake than the chance to do what you really want to do, for the rest of your working life". For this reason the value of occupational information,

gained during environmental exploration, can never be underestimated.

Ball (1984, p.78) supports the fact that occupational information is vitally important and states that "having access to relevant, up to date, occupational information is an essential part of the career decision making process".

Occupations differ in terms of tasks that have to be performed, as well as in terms of the *context* or *environment*, i.e. economic rewards, physical settings, degrees of interaction and types of interaction (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

When conducting environmental exploration, Lock (1992) recommends that certain areas have to be considered: the nature of the work; education, training or experience; personal qualifications; salary; working conditions; location of employment; personality characteristics of people working in the occupation; employment and advancement outlook; personal satisfaction from the work; advantages and disadvantages; perceptions of people with whom you talk and related occupations.

Various sources of occupational information are available. Kunze (1984, cited in Ball, 1984) developed a model which arranges occupational information according to directness.

Table 1: Directness of occupational information

Extent of directness	Classification	Characteristics
10	Work experience on the job	Provide direct contact with actual work situations
9	Work sampling	
8	Direct observations – visiting work settings	
7	Experience in simulated environments, e.g. training workshops	Simulation of work settings and occupational roles
6	Simulations – games and role play	
5	Interviews with experts or representatives of occupations	Information is processed by and adapted to the needs of the individual
4	Computer-based systems	
3	Programmed instructional materials, such as workbooks	
2	Audio visual aids	Information is post method, fixed and designed for general use
1	Publications	

(Ball, 1984)

Based on this analysis, career information in printed form is effective, but aimed more at a basic level of information required. Work sampling, job studies and classroom simulations are more direct and thus provide a firmer basis for career decisions (Ball, 1984; Lock, 1992).

2.3.4.2. Job information

A job is a vehicle for pursuing an occupation – consequently, it is understandable if the information required for occupations and jobs are very similar. However, a thorough occupational exploration does not preclude the need for additional job exploration (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Job exploration includes the analysis of job autonomy. Job autonomy can vary substantially between organisations or between units of the same organisation. According to Levinson (1989) there is extreme pressure on a mature manager to be autonomous, to do what he/she wants to do and to be free of commitments to somebody else. It is thus important when choosing an activity or direction, to choose, insofar as is possible, something that allows maximum freedom to come and go, while still meeting the formal obligations of the role. Job autonomy will be of particular interest to people who enjoy intellectually stimulating, independent and creative work (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Job exploration and job information also include the relationship between a particular job and other jobs in the same or different organisations. Some jobs are “dead ends”, in that movement to other jobs is extremely limited, whilst other jobs provide more options than most. It is, therefore, important to establish exactly what the future prospects of a job are before making a decision.

2.3.4.3. Organisation information

Exploration regarding organisations can be divided into two categories, i.e. internal environmental exploration and external environmental exploration.

Internal exploration involves the gathering of career related information within one's own organisation. Gutteridge identified a number of organisational career development tools that can be utilised to gather data on jobs and opportunities within an organisation, such as job-posting programs, career path planning, career resource centres and in-house seminars and workshops. Other employees can also provide information on jobs and opportunities within the organisation (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Exploration of the external working environment involves the gathering of information on alternative organisations.

The culture of the organisation is an important aspect to take into consideration when exploring the environment. Certain questions can be asked to assess the culture of an organisation. These questions include for instance: What management style is followed in the company? What values do the company stand for? Does the company's politics play a significant role in who gets promoted? Does the company have a sound industrial relations climate? If an organisation's culture is incompatible with a person's values and needs, conflict may occur.

2.3.4.4. Families and life-style

An individual needs to explore the potential of a match between a working environment and a desired work-style / life-style.

The environment and tasks of every occupation and every job differ. The work-style and life-style associated with positions also differ. Two particular life-style considerations that should be taken into account are an occupation's time demands and its associated stresses and strains. Greenhaus et al. (1994) reason that extensive time commitment to a job and/or exposure to extremely stressful work environments can produce conflict between one's work life and other life roles.

An individual's family also plays a significant role when making a career decision. Aspects such as the needs of one's spouse, the children and other family members have to be considered, as well as the spouse's career aspirations and the family's financial needs (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

According to Ball (1984, p.79) "information concerning the total life-style is only gradually taking on an increasing significance". In the past, career decisions were taken without considering the importance of life-style. The importance of taking this construct into consideration when conducting environmental exploration cannot be over-emphasised.

2.4. CAREER GOALS

2.4.1. The concept of goal setting

“If you don’t know where you’re going, you’ll probably end up somewhere else” (DuBrin, 1983, p.24). This statement emphasises the importance of goal setting - not only with regard to an individual’s career, but also with regard to his/her whole life. If goals are not established, it leaves one searching aimlessly for something without knowing exactly what one is seeking (Powell, 1990).

A goal is what an individual tries to accomplish; it is the object or aim of an action (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham, 1981). Lock (1992, p.163) states that “a goal is simply an achievement toward which you have directed your efforts”. A goal gives direction because it reflects an individual’s desire or intention to regulate his/her actions. In other words, a goal focuses an individual’s efforts in a consistent direction (DuBrin, 1990).

According to Locke et al. (1981, p.126) the basic assumption of the goal setting theory is that “goals are immediate regulators of human action”. Goals thus influence behaviour by directing attention, stimulating and maintaining effort and facilitating the development of strategies for goal attainment (Locke & Latham, 1990).

According to Greenhaus et al. (1994, p.61) a career goal is “a desired career-related outcome that a person intends to attain”. It is, therefore, very important that individuals establish goals for their careers to ensure that their efforts are directed at the right “career object” or career-related outcome.

2.4.2. The importance of goal setting

The core premise of the goal setting theory is that an individual regulates his/her actions by means of conscious intentions. “If one intends to do something, one will tend to do it” (DuBrin, 1980, p.142). Goals are immediate, though not the only, regulators of human action (Locke et al., 1990).

Goals are immensely important in that they can affect behaviour and job performance in a number of ways. Career goals specifically, are thus also

important, because an individual's career outcomes are influenced by these goals.

Success can be defined as the achievement of a goal (DuBrin, 1990). Goals therefore spur even higher levels of effort and persistence (Greenhaus, 1987).

Goals also give focus or direction to the effort, because a specific goal provides a particular target toward which the individual can strive. A specific goal can also help develop a useful strategy for accomplishing the target or task (Greenhaus, 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1994). It is well established that task performance of employees with specific, challenging goals is superior to those who work on vague, easy or no goals (Locke et al., 1981).

Goals are furthermore important, because they provide opportunities for feedback on task performance (Greenhaus et al., 1994). DuBrin (1980, p.141) states that "when goals are set, they serve as a standard for the measurement of a satisfactory job".

Aside from increasing productivity levels, goal setting can also help an individual to achieve personal satisfaction (DuBrin, 1990). Most people derive an inner sense of satisfaction from attaining a goal that is meaningful to them. Attaining goals serves as a confidence builder for individuals (DuBrin, 1990).

Setting goals can also give an individual a sense of mission and purpose, which serves as a guideline for an individual's career (DuBrin, 1990).

Goal focus can be defined as an individual's certainty about his/her career goal, or preference for a specific occupation, job or type of organisation in which to work (Stumpf et al., 1983). Goal focus has been shown to be an important determinant of career goal attainment, satisfaction with career progress and participation in activities related to career goal attainment (Stevens, 1973; Sugalski et al., 1986).

The more focused individuals' career goals are, the more likely they will be to engage in behaviours which will help them reach their goals and the greater their motivation will be to participate in development activities (Noe, 1996).

2.4.3. Characteristics of effective goals and objectives

According to DuBrin (1980, p.145) and Lock (1992, p.169) effective goals have certain characteristics:

- Effective goals must be *achievable* and *attainable*, i.e. the individual must be able to realistically accomplish the goals, considering his/her abilities, interests and aptitudes;
- Goals must be *believable* in that the individual truly believes that he/she can accomplish the goal and has the confidence to reach it within the given time constraints;
- Goals must also be *precise*, *explicit* and *specific* with regard to the end state or ideal condition sought;
- Goals must be consistent and *in line with organisational policies and procedures*;
- Goals should be *realistic* at all times. It is motivational to have goals that stretch an individual's competence and abilities (challenging and interesting) but that do not frustrate the person because they are either too difficult or too easy to acquire;
- The employees *themselves* should set goals or, alternatively, the goals must be set in conjunction with their superiors;
- Goals must be set for the immediate time span (*short term*) as well as for the future (*long term*);
- Effective goals should specify *what* is going to be accomplished, *who* is going to accomplish it and *when* it is going to be accomplished;
- Goals should furthermore be *controllable*, i.e. the individual must have the ability to control factors that affect and influence the outcome of a goal;
- A goal must also be *definable* - the goal must be expressed in language that can be understood by everyone;
- Goals should be *growth facilitating*; not injurious or destructive for the individual.
- Goals should also be *measurable / quantifiable* and expressed in such a way that they can be measured in numerical terms, rather than in broad, general, vague or abstract terms. Stating a goal in abstract terms allows an

individual to keep a behavioural count of progress or lack of progress toward a goal.

- Goals must be *consistent* and in line with organisational policies and procedures;

2.4.4. Components of career goals

A career goal can be viewed in three ways: by its conceptual and operational components; by its expressive and instrumental functions as well as by its time dimension (Greenhaus, 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1994).

A conceptual goal summarises the nature of the experiences an individual intends to attain without specifying a particular job or position. This conceptual goal reflects the individual's significant values, interests, attributes and life-style preferences. On the other hand, an operational goal is a translation of a conceptual goal into a specific role, job or position. Career goals should be stated in both conceptual and operational terms (Greenhaus, 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1994).

In addition to their conceptual and operational characteristics, career goals also have expressive and instrumental functions. The expressive function of a goal refers to the intrinsic enjoyment derived from a goal-related experience. Goals are, therefore, expressly appropriate to the extent to which the accomplishment of a goal permits an individual to engage in work activities that are enjoyable, satisfying and fulfilling; allows the individual to utilise his/her valued talents in the work situation; or enables an individual to experience a satisfying and desired life-style. A career goal can, however, also have an instrumental function in that an accomplished goal can lead to the attainment of a subsequent goal. The usefulness of a career goal depends on both its expressive and instrumental qualities (Greenhaus, 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Career goals also have a time dimension. Three types of goals can be distinguished in terms of their time frame: long term, intermediate term and short term goals (DuBrin, 1990; Lock, 1992). The exact definition of each time frame varies from one source to another. A long term career goal is generally considered to have a time frame of seven to ten years; an intermediate term

career goal, four to six years; whilst a short term career goal has a time frame of one to three years (DuBrin, 1980; Greenhaus, 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.4.5. Development of career goals

Career goal setting include the identification of long term and short term conceptual goals as well as long term and short term operational goals, as an outgrowth of the self-exploration and assessment phase (Greenhaus, 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The relationship between these goals is set out as follows (Refer to Figure 3):

The first step in setting a career goal is to identify a long-term conceptual goal. This goal takes into account an individual's needs, values, interests, talents, abilities and expectations. A long term conceptual goal is, therefore, a projection of an individual's preferred work environment into a specific seven to ten year time frame (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

It is sometimes very difficult for an individual to accurately and confidently predict seven to ten years into the future. The individual should, however, attempt to formulate at least a partial conceptual goal, even if it is vague and cannot be associated with a specific operational goal at that point in time (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

A short-term conceptual goal needs to support the long-term conceptual goal. A short term goal must be viewed in terms of its capacity to provide important personal rewards, interesting and meaningful tasks and the possibility of a desired life-style (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The next step in career goal setting is to convert conceptual goals into operational goals. According to Greenhaus et al. (1994, p.63) the following question needs to be asked: "What specific occupation / job / organisation will provide an opportunity to meet one's values, interests, talents and life-style requirements?" There is no automatic formula that can dictate the selection of operational goals. The likelihood that a particular operational goal will enable to satisfy the significant elements of an individual's conceptual goals can only be estimated. By examining the estimates for one or more operational goals,

2.4.6. Obstacles to effective career goal setting

The goal-setting process is not without obstacles and difficulties for the individual. The quality of a career goal is dependent upon whether the achievement of the goal is compatible with the individual's preferred work environment and whether the goal can realistically be achieved (Greenhaus, 1987).

A number of obstacles to effective goal setting exist. Some goals, for example, do not meet the individual's needs and values, because the tasks are not interesting to him/her and the talents required to be successful are either not possessed by the individual or not valued by him/her. Also, certain career goals exclude life-style concerns, which causes many individuals to pursue goals without considering the impact of these goals on other parts of their lives (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Goals that fail to take into account an individual's current job provide another obstacle to effective career goal setting. Often individuals focus too narrowly on pursuing other jobs that they ignore their present position as a source of career growth and satisfaction.

Goals that are too easy or too difficult can cause a further obstacle to effective goal setting. Detecting the fine line between challenging goals and goals that are too difficult requires not only insight into one's own talents, but also into the ability to develop new talents and opportunities, as well as to identify obstacles in the work environment (Basset, 1979; Campbell & Ilgen, 1976; DuBrin, 1990; Greenhaus et al., 1994; Locke, 1968; Yukl & Latham, 1978).

2.4.7. The individual's first career goal - Making an occupational choice

Why does an individual choose a certain occupation? Researchers have often asked this question. Various theories have also attempted to capture the essence of an individual's occupational choice.

Two major kinds of explanations for occupational choice have been offered, i.e. psychological and sociological explanations.

2.4.7.1. Psychological explanations for occupational choice

Psychological explanations focus on the internal factors in an individual that influence his/her occupational choice. Several approaches attempted to capture the psychological reasons for choosing a specific occupation. The trait-and-factor theory, differentialism, developmentalism, social learning theories and decision-making theories offered explanations as to why individuals make certain vocational choices.

Trait-and-Factor Theory

Paterson and Williamson laid the foundation for the trait-and-factor theory. This approach assumes that an individual consciously makes an analysis of his/her own *traits*, i.e. abilities, values, aptitudes, interests, needs, motives, limitations, strengths, resources, personality and potentialities (Gothard, 1985; Osipow et al., 1996). Greenhaus et al. (1994, p.20) describe this phase as the career self-exploration phase. Williamson regards this initial phase as very important and laid great emphasis on individuals as rational beings who need to possess adequate information about themselves to be able to make wise occupational choices (Gothard, 1985).

Thereafter, the individual proceeds to accumulate information about occupations, i.e. traits required to be successful in the specific occupation, minimum entry level for the occupation, the nature of the work, working conditions, location of employment, etc. (Arthur et al., 1989; Ball, 1984; Osipow et al., 1996).

The individual then correlates the requirements of the occupations with his/her own traits. Based on the outcome of such a correlation, the individual will make an occupational choice that will enable him/her to utilise his/her capabilities or traits effectively. A “match” or fit between the individual’s characteristics and the characteristics of the environment takes place (Arthur et al., 1989; Ball, 1984; Greenhaus et al., 1994; Gothard, 1985; Osipow et al., 1996).

Developmentalism

Super

Super, the major figure in occupational choice theory, proposed twelve “universal truths” regarding occupational choice (Ball, 1984).

He proposed that people differ with regard to their abilities, interests and personalities. They are, therefore, qualified for a number of occupations, by virtue of their characteristics. Each occupation requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests and personality traits, allowing tolerances for some variety of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.

Super proposed that, in starting work, each individual is defining or elaborating their idea of themselves. “The choice of an occupation is one of the points in life at which a young person is called upon to state rather explicitly his concept of himself to say definitely ‘I am this kind of person’” (Ball, 1984, p.12).

Vocational preferences and competencies, the situation in which people live and work and also their self-concepts change over a period of time, making occupational choice and adjustment a continuous process.

The vocational choice and adjustment process continues during the five life stages of an individual, i.e. growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline. The growth stage (birth to age 14) is characterised by the identification with key figures in the family and school. The exploration stage (age 15 to 24) is characterised by the increasing exploration of self in relation to work, when tentative choices are made and implemented in the mid-teens in preparation for the transition stage of work entry and professional training. The establishment stage (age 25 to 44) is the period during which an individual begins to feel established in a particular field and can be separated into two sub-stages, i.e. the trial stage and stabilisation. During the maintenance stage (age 45 to 64) little new

ground is often made in career development. The decline stage (age 65 and onwards) is seen as a time of deceleration, but with the chance to take on new roles and activities. Development through the life stages can be guided by means of the facilitation of the maturation of abilities and interests, by aiding in reality testing and also by developing an individual's self concept (Ball, 1984; Greenhaus et al., 1994; Super, 1957; Super & Hall, 1978).

Self concept is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes; opportunities to play various roles; and evaluations of the extent to which the results of role-playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows. Super believes that an occupational choice enables an individual to play a role appropriate to the self-concept. An individual "implements" his/her self-concept in developing an occupational choice (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The process of compromise between individual and social factors, between self-concept and reality, is one of role-playing.

"A career pattern is the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency and duration of trial and stable jobs" (Ball, 1984, p.11). An individual's career pattern is determined by various factors, including parental socio-economic level, mental ability, personality traits and opportunities to which the individual is exposed.

Work satisfaction and life satisfaction depend upon the extent to which an individual finds adequate outlets for his/her abilities, interests, values and personality traits.

The degree of work satisfaction an individual experiences is proportionate to the degree to which he/she has been able to implement self-concepts.

Work and occupation provide a focus for personality organisation, although for some this focus is peripheral, incidental or non-existent.

Osipow (1973) regards Super's theory as a well ordered, highly systematic representation of the processes of vocational motivation,

but feels that social and economic factors influencing occupational choice and other career decisions, are lacking.

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad & Herma Theory

Ginzberg et al. (1972, cited in Ball, 1984) viewed occupational choice as a lifelong process rather than a single life event. "An individual never reaches the ultimate decision at a single moment in time, but through a series of decisions over a period of many years." (Ball, 1984, p.9.)

This occupational choice process is characterised by three stages - the fantasy stage, the tentative stage and the realistic stage. The fantasy stage lasts until 11 years and is based on needs and impulses. The tentative stage, which lasts until age 17, starts off with a child having unrestrained interests in various occupations, is later tempered with the reality of his/her capacities and lastly takes intrinsic or extrinsic values of the possible occupations into account. The realistic stage, which begins at age 17, is distinct from the tentative stage in that the individual evaluates the feedback of his/her vocational behaviours in a realistic context, formulates a clear vocational pattern after which an occupation is chosen (Gothard, 1985; Osipow et al., 1996).

Several researchers suggest that there may be a fourth stage to the process of choosing an occupation - the dissonance reduction. Frequently, after choosing a career, an individual will have lingering doubts about other attractive alternatives he/she did not choose. In order to reduce the dissonance, individuals will then seek more positive information about the career path chosen and more negative information about alternatives not chosen (Feldman, 1988).

This process is one in which the adolescent gains self-awareness in relation to an awareness of his/her immediate environment and the external realities of the workplace.

Super is critical of Ginzberg et al.'s theory and describes it as being "speculative" (Gothard, 1985, p.23). This theory, despite the criticism it has received, has heuristic value and influenced later theories in vocational psychology (Gothard, 1985).

Social learning theory

Mitchell, Jones & Krumboltz

The social learning theory attempts to encompass a process in totality. According to Krumboltz et al. (Gothard, 1985, p.26) "it explains the development of career aspirations and achievements; reinforces the notion that career selection is a developmental process; clarifies the role of decision making skills; allows for the influence of economic and sociological variables; and is compatible with critical aspects of personality theories".

Four types of influences on career decision-making have been identified:

Genetic endowment plays an important role in either expanding or restricting career preferences. These genetic characteristics include race, sex, physical appearance, handicaps, intelligence, co-ordination, musical ability and artistic ability (Gothard, 1985; Lock, 1992).

Second are *environmental conditions and events*, such as jobs being available in a certain geographical area, availability of and demand for natural resources, training opportunities, family experiences and new developments in technology (Gothard, 1985; Lock, 1992).

Learning experiences also influence career decisions. Krumboltz et al. identified two kinds of learning experiences; one acting on the environment and the other one responding to the environment (Lock, 1992).

The fourth type of influence is the *task approach skills*, i.e. the variety of skills, performance standards and values. An individual learns

skills to interpret and cope with the environment and make predictions about the future. Skills are utilised in order to clarify values, set goals, predict future events, generate occupational alternatives, seek information, interpret past events and eliminate and select alternatives (Gothard, 1985).

According to Krumboltz (1976, cited in Gothard, 1985) draws a number of implications from his theory:

Occupational placement is the result of a complex interaction of genetic characteristics, environmental influences and learning experiences, which result in the development of task approach skills.

Career selection is a process that is influenced by decisions made by each individual involved as well as social forces, which affect occupational availability and requirements.

Career selection is a continuous process over an individual's life span and is shaped by events and decisions from infancy through to retirement.

Career selection is a very intricate process that is caused by multiple factors, virtually impossible to predict. Vocational guidance, based on prediction and forecast, is, therefore, an invalid exercise.

Career indecision is a result of the unsatisfactory nature of career learning experiences or of the fact that the person has not yet learned and applied a systematic way of making career decisions.

Career counselling is about opening up new learning experiences and motivating a client to initiate career-relevant exploratory activities. It, therefore, suggests a role of development to the counsellor rather than one of assessing and predicting.

A very important aspect of this social learning theory is that an individual should become aware of troublesome personal beliefs regarding his/her career decisions and job searches.

In conclusion, although the decision making process is stressful and sometimes very painful and can cause people to react by becoming

extremely rigid and defensive, the ideal is to be analytical, to seek professional career guidance and to be committed to the decision making process (Lock, 1992).

Decision making theory

Tiedemann & O'Hara

Decision-making is regarded as a two-part process, i.e. anticipation and implementation-adjustment. Anticipation begins with exploration, which involves the individual visualising himself in different working situations. Thereafter, crystallisation follows with an attempt to assess personal values in relation to possible occupations, whilst also weighing the advantages and disadvantages. Stabilisation then occurs, leading to an occupational choice, which stimulates action (Gothard, 1985; Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963).

Normative Theory

According to the normative theory, "the best decision is the one that best helps to achieve the decision maker's goals" (Gati, Krausz & Osipow, 1996, p.511). These goals are represented by the individual's preferences with respect to the various alternatives under consideration. A rational decision-maker should, therefore, choose the alternative with the highest utility, where utility is a function of the perceived "gap" between the individual's preferences and the characteristics of each of the attributes of alternative.

Career decisions have certain features: there is an individual who has to make a vocational decision, there are a number of alternatives to select from and there are many attributes or aspects that are considered in comparing and evaluating the alternatives (Gati et al., 1996).

Career decisions also have certain unique features. The number of potential alternatives is often large and there is an extensive amount of information available on each alternative. A large number of

aspects are also required to adequately characterise the occupations as well as the individual's preferences in a detailed and meaningful way. Uncertainty plays a major role with respect to both the individual's characteristics and the nature of future career alternatives (Gati et al., 1996).

Various career decision-making difficulties can be identified. Difficulties prior to the decision-making process include a lack of readiness due to either a lack of motivation, indecisiveness, myths or a lack of knowledge about the process. Difficulties that are experienced during the process include a lack of information, respectively, of the self, occupations; and ways of obtaining information; and inconsistent information due to unreliable information sources and internal and external conflicts (Gati et al., 1996).

Gelatt

"A need to decide is precipitated by a purpose" (Gothard, 1985, p.30). The purpose in this incidence is to choose an occupation, which leads to a need to obtain information, i.e. what suitable jobs are available, what qualifications have to be obtained in order to perform the job, etc.

Gelatt suggests that this information be organised into three systems:

Firstly, the information is sought that will enable the individual to predict possible outcomes, possible alternative actions, probable outcomes, etc. This information allows the individual to have relative preferences based on his/her value system, i.e. availability of work, possible income, etc. *Secondly*, the individual will evaluate the information and *lastly* make a decision (Gothard, 1985).

Individuals can systematise the decision-making processes by gaining as much information as possible and channelling this back into the three systems. Decisions can thus be produced that have been more clearly thought through.

Vroom

Vroom's expectancy theory is a rational, calculative, goal-directed model of decision-making in which individuals choose courses of action that are expected to produce desirable consequences (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

According to this theory, individuals approach occupational choice situations with a well-established set of desired outcomes or rewards. The value of each outcome is rated before different occupations are considered. Thereafter, a number of occupations are examined and the likelihood that the occupation will lead to a desired job outcome, is determined (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

According to the expectancy theory, individuals develop expectancies regarding the likelihood that they could successfully enter a particular occupation if they put forth sufficient effort. Individuals mentally multiply the attractiveness of an occupation by their expectancy of being able to enter the occupation. They then choose the occupation with the highest expected attractiveness (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Soelberg

Soelberg suggests that individuals do not initially assess a job on a long list of outcomes, but rather focus on one or two significant outcomes. Jobs that, therefore, fail to reach an acceptable level on these significant outcomes are rejected without further consideration, even if they would provide many other desirable outcomes. The jobs that are still remaining are then put on an active roster of acceptable outcomes, from which the occupational choice is then made, based on one or two outcomes (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

After choosing the occupation, an individual will justify the decision by comparing the chosen job with the rejected alternatives on a wide range of outcomes.

2.4.7.2. Sociological explanations for occupational choice

Sociology aims at understanding the way in which society is structured, how the structures change over time and the impact that these structures have upon individuals. These structures include the family, education, religion, work, the media and the state.

The sociological approach to careers is fundamentally based on the principle that elements beyond the individual's control exert a major influence on the course of life, including educational and vocational decisions.

There are various sociological explanations for an individual making an occupational choice, i.e. parental attitudes and values, educational background, economic factors, political and societal factors, individual abilities and personal needs and interests (Feldman, 1988).

Parents influence their children's occupational choices in at least two distinct ways. *Firstly*, parents influence the level of their children's career aspirations. They either "push" their children to excel or undercut their ambitions with a "laissez faire" or antagonistic view of education. *Secondly*, parents serve as important sources of information about career options.

Parents' occupations also play a role in the development of their children's interests and skills. In addition, parents' occupations affect family income. Wealthy families can provide the resources to pursue special hobbies, to receive proper career counselling, to develop latent interests and skills, etc. Several studies (Carter, 1972; Ashton & Field, 1976) found that there is a strong relationship between the socio-economic status of parents and the work attitudes and aspirations of their children (Arthur et al., 1989).

Educational achievements at school play a major role in opening or closing career options to young adults (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The state of the economy has a substantial impact on occupational choice. Personal finances also play a role (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The political and societal factors influence the types of careers to which people aspire. Technological changes can also affect career plans, choices and decisions (Feldman, 1988; Greenhaus et al., 1994; Gothard, 1985).

A child's social background can also influence his/her orientation towards the work world. Selective exposure to adults can stimulate widely different occupational aspirations. Social class can also affect the values an individual strives to attain. A child does not, however, automatically adopt a parent's work values, but certainly has the opportunity to identify with parents and internalise their values (Feldman, 1988; Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The geographical location of an individual's residence also plays a role in affecting occupational choices, e.g. children from urban parts of a country may have little knowledge of the life of a farmer, etc. (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.4.7.3. Concise model capturing psychological, sociological and economic explanations of occupational choice

One early theoretical approach, which attempted to provide a model which accounted for sociological, psychological and economic variables, is provided by Blau et al. (1956, cited in Ball, 1984). The model suggests a complex interaction between psychological attributes, socialisation and socio-economic structure.

The determinants of occupational choice include the occupational information *people* possess, their qualifications, their "social characteristics" and value orientations, which are matched against the determinants of recruitment and selection (Ball, 1984).

Blau and his associates stress that occupational choice is a continuous process and is not characterised by a single decision (Ball, 1984).

According to Ball (1984, p.17) Blau's model "has such face validity that it is surprising that it has not attracted more research attention". The reason might be that very few researchers concentrated on both psychological explanations and sociological explanations of occupational choice, but rather focused on either the one or the other.

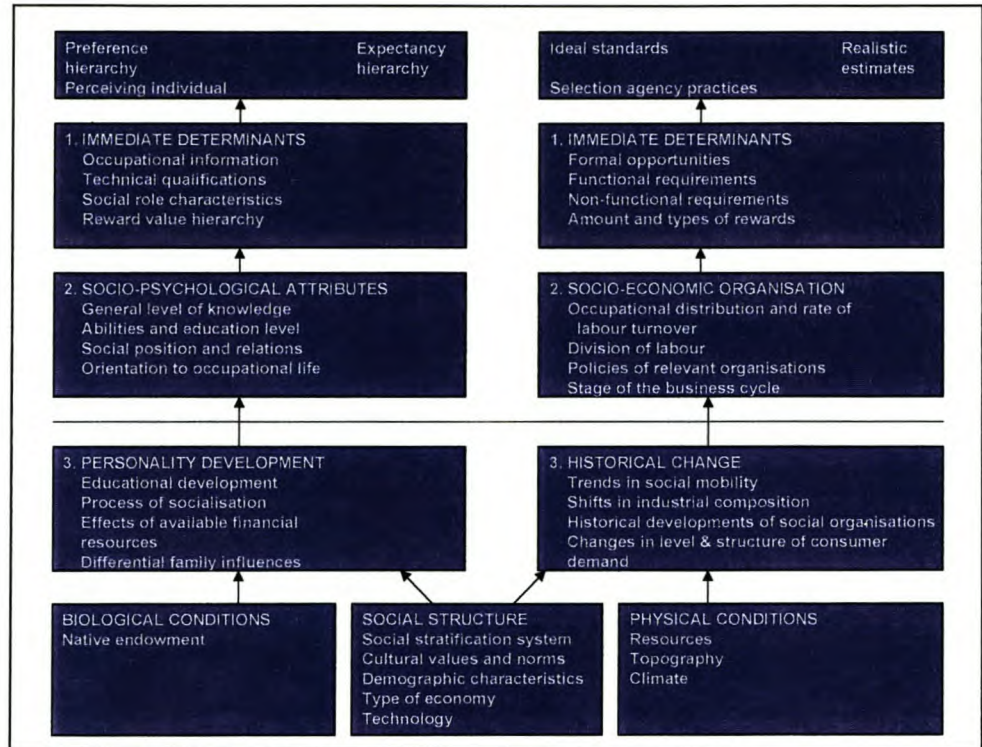


Figure 4: Blau's model

(Ball, 1984)

2.4.8. Concluding remarks

Once the individual has decided on his/her career goals - whether it was to make an occupational choice, to set certain career goals within an existing job or to set goals applicable to another more desired job, position or occupation - the individual can then start formulating career strategies in order to realise his/her career goals.

2.5. CAREER STRATEGIES

The third component of career self-management involves the development of career strategies.

“A career strategy is an activity or behaviour that increases the likelihood of career goal attainment” (Noe, 1996, p.122). According to Greenhaus et al. (1994) career strategies are activities designed to help an individual meet career goals. Rothwell and Sredl (1992) support this view of career strategies by defining the concept as a series of steps by which to achieve career goals and objectives.

The literature purports that a relationship exists between career management and task / job performance (refer to page 4). Career strategising is one element / component of career self-management and it is therefore expected that a relationship also exists between this variable and task / job performance. This was supported by the career performance model, developed by Beehr et al. (1980, cited in Gould et al., 1984), that suggested a relationship between career strategising and job/task performance. This purported relationship is depicted in Figure 5.

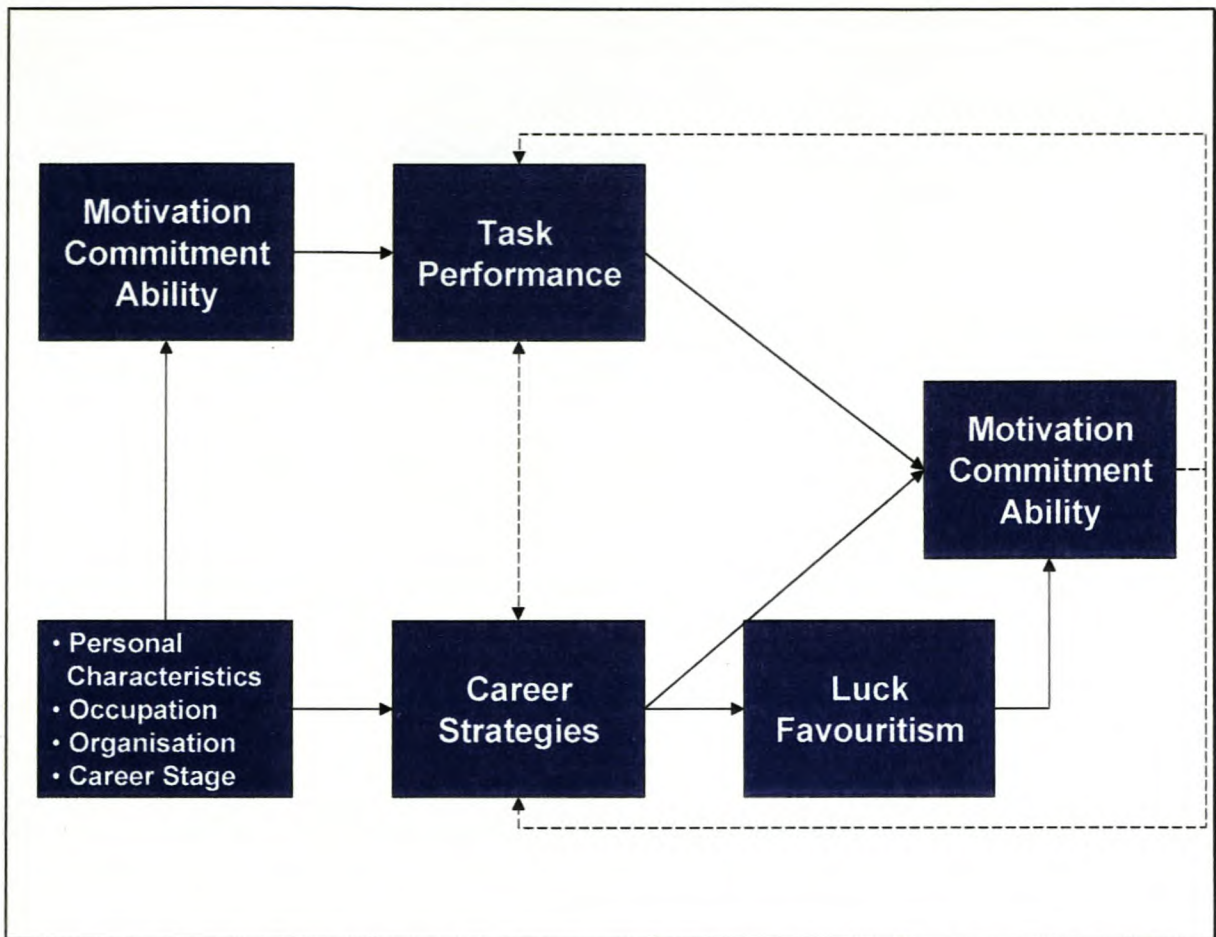


Figure 5: A model of the relationship between career strategising and task/job performance

(Beehr et al., 1980, cited in Gould et al., 1984)

2.5.1. Development of a career strategy

The development and implementation of career strategies are often intertwined. Greenhaus et al. (1994) regard an essential part of the development stage of a career strategy to be “learning by doing”, thus adjusting the strategy whilst at the same time implementing it.

The feedback obtained after the implementation of a strategy makes an individual aware of changes required to the original strategy. The development and formulation of a career strategy is, therefore, a continuous process, and can take place concurrent to the implementation of the strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

The *first* step in the development of a career strategy is to re-examine the long-term goal. This involves establishing what the goal represents in terms of

desired activities, rewards and life-style and also why the particular occupation or job is appropriate for meeting the goal (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Secondly, behaviours, activities and experiences that will help to reach the long-term goal have to be identified by the individual. When deciding on a specific set of behaviours and activities, it is important that the individual estimates the potential usefulness of that set of behaviours and activities. Some of these sets may help in attaining one element of a career goal, but interfere with the attainment of other elements. Therefore, the effectiveness of a particular career strategy has to be evaluated in a holistic sense (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The *third* step in the development process of a career strategy is to examine the short-term goal. During this step it is critical to establish whether the short-term goal is instrumental to the attainment of the long-term goal, i.e. whether the “fit” between the short-term goal and the long-term goal is correct.

The *fourth* step is based on the previous step, in that behaviours, activities and experiences have to be identified that will assist with the attainment of the short-term goal. Potential usefulness and personal acceptability should be twin criteria by which a career strategy is judged. A list of critical and acceptable strategic plans for the attainment of the short-term goal should be developed (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Lastly, the individual should combine the lists of strategies to accomplish the long-term goals and the short-term goals. The strategies designed to attain both types of goals are critical and should, therefore, remain at the top of the combined list. This list should be manageable and the individual should thus order the activities in a logical time sequence (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.5.2. Characteristics of a career strategy

A career strategy has to be *flexible and dynamic*. If an individual receives feedback on a career strategy that raises questions about the validity thereof, the strategy should be flexible enough to allow for changes and adjustments. Over-dedication to any given strategy without taking reality in consideration, may result in lost opportunities (Souerwine, 1978).

A career strategy should have a *purposeful orientation*. A career strategy is a phrasing of the complexities of what the individual expects to achieve when interacting with the various environments. A career strategy must be able to answer the following questions: "Why am I doing what I am doing?" and "What personal needs am I trying to satisfy?" (Souerwine, 1978, p.29).

A career strategy must also have an *activity orientation* in that a strategy translates its purpose into action. Once the activity is defined, the individual can award resources to the various activities (Souerwine, 1978).

A career strategy secondarily requires a *role orientation*. Different roles can achieve the same purpose, whilst demanding similar activities. Role selection should, therefore, follow a careful delineation of the individual's wants and goals. The roles that an individual selects as possible choices in career strategy, are closely related to the individual's self-concept (Souerwine, 1978).

Career strategies should also have *future orientations* in that the achievements of objectives or purposes are future projections. The further into the future the career strategy projections are made, the less precise and the more ambiguous they will be (Souerwine, 1978).

Willingness to take risks is another characteristic of a career strategy. The amount of risk an individual is willing to take depends on a wide variety of experiences that may or may not have built confidence in his/her ability to assess the risks in a situation. There are qualitative measures available that might be used to ascertain the degree of risk. Strategy formulation is based on the availability of the resources and the projection of their utilisation at some time in the future. The degree of risk of a strategy can, therefore, be evaluated by taking a qualitative look at the demands on time and resources. Questions that can be asked to ascertain the degree of risk involved include the following: "Over what period of time will I be required to commit my personal resources in order to achieve a strategic objective?"; "How long will the necessary resources be available to me?"; and "How many of my resources must I commit to a given strategic objective?" (Souerwine, 1978, p.32).

An additional characteristic of a career strategy is *conflict resolution*. Souerwine (1978, p.34) states that "to attempt to implement a strategy that is

known to have inherent conflict among its objectives is to flirt with frustration and potential failure". It is, therefore, important that some consideration be given to ways of minimising the conflicts among the various elements of the strategy.

The last important characteristic of a career strategy is that the strategy must have a *reality orientation*. A reality orientation ensures a more responsible approach to the planning of a strategy, although it is not always easy to face up to reality and reject all plans that seem to be unrealistic. In order to ensure that a career strategy has a realistic orientation, the following can be taken into consideration:

- Activities should be planned in such a way that at least one of the activities involves someone who is in a position of responsibility.
- Alternative ways of fulfilling needs within accepted social frames of reference must be investigated. To hold on to only one approach when experiences suggest failure, emphasises unrealistic aspects of an individual's aspirations.
- Experiences should be utilised as a basis for self-diagnosis. This is not to suggest that an individual has to become overly introspective, but rather that a retrospective examination of his/her experiences will indicate trends and patterns that provide clues about himself/herself.

2.5.3. Career strategy models

Two career strategy models, namely the career planning wheel and the role demands model, will accordingly be reviewed. These models incorporate the most important aspects of and influences on a career strategy.

2.5.3.1. Career planning wheel

The first model compares career planning with a wheel and relates all aspects of career planning back to this wheel.

"Spokes"

The career planning wheel consists of segments, known as "spokes" of the wheel. When conducting career planning, an individual should

have a thorough understanding as well as an awareness of each of the “spokes” in order to optimise the career strategy. Frequently, individuals concentrate too much on some “spokes”, whilst losing track of the importance and value of some of the other segments. For a short time period, such failure to develop all areas in a segment might go unnoticed, but after a longer period of time that specific segment will be weakened and will ultimately lead to the weakening of the entire career strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

The following “spokes” or aspects of career planning should be taken into account:

Job-related issues

Most individuals have a thorough knowledge of the span and limits of their jobs; they understand the prerequisites for the position as well as the requirements for development. They also possess the skills to be successful. Few individuals, however, understand the connection between their job and other jobs in the company and the relation their job has with the company and unit objectives. Although knowledge of all these aspects may not be essential for immediate satisfactory performance, such knowledge becomes increasingly important when formulating a career strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

Manager-related issues

Many studies have indicated that there is a discrepancy between what the manager thinks the subordinate’s position entails and what the subordinate thinks his/her position entails. From these indications the conclusion can be drawn that individuals might be perceived as being ineffective in their strategies if they do not understand exactly what the manager expects of them. An awareness of the manager’s life-style and philosophy provides the individual with additional clues regarding his/her value system and how to relate to him/her in their job situation (Souerwine, 1978).

Subordinate-related issues

Subordinate-related issues play an important role when an individual wants to accomplish something through other people, i.e. the subordinates. It is therefore very important that the superior is aware of the subordinates' careers and life-plans; that the subordinate knows exactly what is expected of him/her; and that the subordinate is aware of what his/her superior's goals and objectives are (Souerwine, 1978).

Peer-related issues

Individuals will typically develop relationships with a few of their peers. An individual's upward mobility is in part influenced by his/her evaluation of the peer group (Souerwine, 1978).

The size of the wheel

According to Souerwine (1978, p.68) "the person who adopts a career strategy that strives for optimum development of all segments of the career will progress more quickly and easily than the one who settled for a strategy that does not encourage such development".

Contact with the environment

An individual's career strategy should always be in touch with his/her environment. As the individual develops, gains more experience and acquires a repertoire of skills, abilities, attitudes and beliefs, through the enlargement of his/her immediate environment as well as by his/her experiences within such an environment, possible career strategies will also expand.

The centre

The centre of any career strategy is situated in an individual's self-concept. The self-concept consists of a set of characteristics, attitudes, values and beliefs that describe the individual. Every individual's self-concept is, therefore, unique (Souerwine, 1978).

When an individual is familiar with his/her self-concept and when that self-concept is close to reality and to other people's perceptions of him/her, the individual can more accurately interpret the environments in which he/she functions. On the other hand, if the individual's concept is distorted, then his/her interpretations of the environment will be proportionately distorted and the individual will respond in ways that will be interpreted by others as being unrealistic. It is critical, however, that the individual has a realistic view of himself/herself in order to establish a proper, efficient career strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

The tyre

Individuals learn, during the course of their lifetimes, to behave in certain ways that are supportive of their self-concepts and responsive to their needs. Through learning experiences, they discover how to best respond to their environment. Individuals also possess adjustment mechanisms that influence the absorption of frustrations and conflicts perceived in the environment (Souerwine, 1978).

Direction

If an individual's career is directed, his/her ultimate career destination can be planned. Consequently, the effects of potential frustrations and conflicts can be avoided - or at least minimised (Souerwine, 1978).

2.5.3.2. Role demands model

"A career may be defined as a series of roles. The nature of each role, how the role is played and the context in which it is played, will have an influence on the next role played in the series" (Souerwine, 1978, p.75).

Step 1: Defining one's self-image

During this stage, the individual has to conduct a self-assessment, by determining his/her values, abilities, aptitudes, skills, personality traits, etc.

Step 2: Defining preferred activities

The individual should list preferred activities to be engaged in, both in the present as well as the future. These activities should be based on self-assessment as well as the analysis of the environment. A sound career strategy is based on specific actions rather than vague, general goals.

Step 3: Defining role opportunities

The target activities identified in Step 2, must, during this phase, be matched to professional roles. Conflicts might occur between the self-image and the role opportunities, but at this stage the role opportunities should not be rejected.

Step 4: Defining role demands

During this stage, a detailed analysis has to be conducted of the specific requirements for fulfilling the roles considered in the previous step. These requirements include aptitudes, interests, personal characteristics, values, preferred life-styles, etc.

Step 5: Matching the role demands and self-image

This step draws a comparison between the individual's self-image and the role demands. This comparison results in a list of areas that match and a list that conflict. If the match is a poor one, it will either suggest the need for much work and effort to grow into the particular role, or it will suggest completely abandoning the role in favour of one which has demands that are more compatible with the self-image. Similarly, the individual might choose not to abandon the role, but to

rather utilise the resources available to develop the role in the required direction.

Step 6: Determining areas of change

If an area of conflict is identified, the need for change might arise – goal changes, changes in self-image, or the changing of external conditions. Some of these conflicts can be resolved, whilst other conflicts cannot be resolved and then become a fixed reality.

Step 7: Formulating the career strategy

At this point, the individual should re-evaluate target activities. Some of the target activities selected may resultantly be unrealistic given the role opportunities available. After reconciling personal goals with specific job requirements, a career strategy has to be formulated.

Step 8: Commitment to performance standards

The career strategy is incomplete without a binding commitment to achievement. This commitment should take the form of a schedule, which records the realistic dates of completion for the specific sub-tasks implied by the career strategy.

Concrete criteria should be established to measure progress on each goal. Furthermore, individuals affected by the achievement of a specific goal should also make commitments.

Establishing such measurable performance standards provides the necessary feedback to the individual.

2.5.4. Types of career strategies

Various types of career strategies can be identified to assist an individual in reaching his/her career goals.

2.5.4.1. Competence in the present job

This career strategy is a necessary, but insufficient condition for attaining most career goals.

Organisations make promotion decisions largely based on the employee's current level of performance. Therefore, the conclusion can be drawn that an individual's current level of job performance cannot be ignored, but plays a critical role (Greenhaus et al., 1994; Noe, 1996).

According to Feldman (1988) competence in the present job is the heart of the matter. He states that in the long run outstanding performers advance more quickly than average performers, they are given more challenging assignments, they are given more and greater training opportunities and they also receive increased visibility over their average counterparts.

2.5.4.2. Extended work involvement

Extended work involvement includes the devotion of time, energy and emotion to a specific work role. This career strategy can *firstly* enhance performance on the job and *secondly* demonstrate to the organisation that the individual is committed to his/her work and is capable of taking on large volumes of work (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.5.4.3. Skill development

According to Greenhaus et al. (1994, p.74) this type of career strategy refers to "the attempt to acquire or enhance work-related skills and abilities through education, training and/or job experiences that either help performance of one's current job or will be required on subsequent jobs".

An advantage of skill development is that skills developed in one job may be helpful or even essential for the successful performance of other jobs (Noe, 1996).

2.5.4.4. Opportunity development

This strategy includes actions designed to make aspirations and interests known to others and also to become aware of opportunities consistent with those aspirations and interests.

Self-nomination

Self-nomination is regarded as a form of opportunity development in that it refers to the individual's willingness to inform superiors of accomplishments, aspirations and desired assignments (Greenhaus et al., 1994). Noe (1996) states that self-nomination is one of the career strategies that are most responsible for the development of positive *influence* and entails the communication of a desire to assume increased responsibility. Feldman (1988) supports the concept of self-nomination and also states that it increases the number of higher-level contacts that an employee has.

Visiposure

This strategy refers to the visibility and exposure of an individual in an organisation.

Visibility refers to the individual's ability to view the top of the organisation. Visibility thus enables an individual to understand and model those who are higher in the hierarchy (Greenhaus et al., 1994). Visibility can be pursued through the social realm as well as the work realm (Feldman, 1988).

Exposure refers to the individual being seen by the top management team. Exposure brings recognition, special assignments as well as sponsorship (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

Networking

Networking in an organisation refers to the identification of and communication with a group of relevant acquaintances and friends who can provide information, advice, resources and support (Greenhaus et al., 1994; Noe, 1996).

"Temping"

An individual can utilise this career strategy by accepting a temporary assignment to gain additional skills and competencies and to "audition" for a permanent position (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.5.4.5. The development of mentor and other supportive alliances

This strategy includes actions designed to seek, establish and utilise relationships with a significant other to receive or provide information, guidance, support and opportunities.

The purpose of the mentor is to provide coaching, friendship, sponsorship and role modelling to a younger, less experienced protégé. In the process, the mentor can have a lasting and very important influence on the protégé's life (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.5.4.6. Image building

This type of career strategy encompasses the attempt to communicate the appearance of acceptability, success as well as the potential for future success to others in an organisation (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

According to Trump (1995), besides sufficient knowledge of his/her field, an individual also needs a professional appearance to achieve ultimate success. Betty Lehan Harragan (cited in Feldman, 1988, p.196) states that "in business you are not dressing to express personal taste; you are dressing in a costume which should be designed to have an impact on your bosses and team-mates".

Factors to be considered when an individual wishes to improve his/her image, include body language, vocal quality, presentation skills and professional conduct (Trump, 1995).

Image, therefore, plays a significant role in formulating career strategies, because "to be successful, the professional has to look like a winner, not just be a winner" (Feldman, 1988, p.208).

2.5.4.7. Participating in organisational politics

Organisational politics includes diverse strategies such as agreeing with or flattering superiors, advocating company practices, not

complaining about rules and regulations and forming alliances with others in the organisation (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.5.4.8. Outplacement

The strategy of outplacement involves consultation with an external career counsellor (i.e. a counsellor outside the organisation in which the individual is employed). This counsellor's purpose is to give guidance with regard to career-related issues. The initial contact session consists of a comprehensive battery of tests, followed by a formal report and feedback. Follow-up meetings occur every 12 to 24 months. These follow-up meetings are normally triggered by a career- or life-altering event, such as a change in jobs, a new manager, etc. (Schoff, 1997).

The purpose of outplacement is to gain a professional's insights and advice regarding career-related aspects. These aspects can include the nature of work relationships; aspects that the individual enjoys about his/her career; aspects at which the individual is successful; elements of the work that the individual least enjoys and that are least rewarding and satisfying; tactics to employ in order to optimise strengths; as well as suggestions for handling or avoiding dissatisfying and unrewarding situations and relationships (Schoff, 1997).

This introspection eventually leads to an improvement in the individual's ability to relate his/her career to other life values, such as family values, spiritual values and self-image (Schoff, 1997).

2.5.5. The content of a career strategy

According to Souerwine (1978, p.39) the content of a career strategy includes "the identification and selection of objectives by the individual, the resources this individual will need to achieve those objectives and the guidelines for achievement".

A career strategy consists of the following four major components:

2.5.5.1. Determination of challenges and opportunities

The first component of a career strategy includes the identification of the activities that “*might be*” performed, based on the opportunities available from the environments in which the individual functions (Souerwine, 1978).

Specifically, the *technological, economic, political and social / cultural* environments have an impact on the nature and implementation of a career strategy (Boase, 1996; Souerwine, 1978).

The general environments in which an individual functions should also be viewed within the narrower confines of the more immediate environments in which career strategies are implemented. These include the organisation in which the individual is employed, the family, the community and groups in which the individual functions socially or in a service capacity.

Each of these groups functions within its own economic, political, technological and social framework and so may encompass a different set of opportunities and threats for the individual. All of these have to be taken into account when considering a career strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

2.5.5.2. Determination of strengths and limitations

Another important component of a career strategy focuses on the “*can be*” aspects, i.e. the identification of resources and competencies available - both from the individual himself/herself as well as from others - that may be necessary for the implementation of the individual's career strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

The individuals' marketing, production, research and development, capital and management positions are considered when determining strengths and limitations.

Marketing position

In order for the individual to establish his/her marketing position, he/she has to determine a number of factors. These factors include the following, namely the key tasks at which he/she performs well, average and bad; his/her "distinctive competencies", in other words the tasks that the individual performs better than other people; the kind of reputation that he/she has developed; future circumstances that might arise and prevent the individual from competing effectively; whether the individual's strengths can be transferred to other situations or whether the strengths are limited to specific areas; and also, whether the competencies are limiting the individual to specific geographical areas (Souerwine, 1978).

Production position

The production position relates to the individual's distinctive competencies and strengths.

In order to determine an individual's production position, the following questions are to be answered:

- Do competencies need continuing development or are they presently at an optimum level?
- If further development is required, will cost factors change the competitive edge with others?
- Do the competencies demand continuing efforts to make them available to others? If so, will the individual be able to keep up with the potential demand for his/her strengths?
- Do the individual's strengths rely on the services or the work of others? If so, are these people available to provide the necessary support?

Apparent from the above-mentioned questions, the production position may be a limitation to the marketing position (Souerwine, 1978).

Research and Development position

Various factors have to be taken into account when considering the individual's research and development position. These factors include the creative spirit and the flexibility to keep researching new ways, the willingness and ability to work on limitations and the desire to "stay on top of things" by seeking out new experiences and contacts with people who have similar competencies (Souerwine, 1978).

Capital position

In order to meet career strategy demands, the individual can enhance his/her capital position by enhancing both the inner resources (skills, knowledge, contracts and finances) as well as the resources of others (expertise) (Souerwine, 1978).

Management position

In order to improve an individual's management position, two aspects should be addressed – the ability to plan and organise and the ability to control and measure (Souerwine, 1978).

2.5.5.3. Relating of strategic possibilities to personal values

The third component of a career strategy includes the "want to" aspects. This component requires the individual to identify his/her values and aspirations. This component, therefore, dictates the priorities for the many possibilities opened to the individual by the analysis of environments.

Awareness of the influence of values on strategic choices permits one to evaluate the importance of a value before dealing with the strategic issue directly. Kenneth Andrews commented on the role of the executive's personal values: "Strategy is a human construction; it must be responsive to human needs. It must ultimately inspire commitment...somebody has to have heart in it" (Souerwine, 1978, p.59).

2.5.5.4. Relating of career strategy alternatives to social values

Lastly, a career strategy also consists of “*should do*” elements. This entails that individuals try to live up to what they perceive as the expectations of others in the groups to which they think they belong. It is a potent force in human behaviour and therefore an important ingredient in the formulation of career strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

2.5.6. The implementation of a career strategy

The implementation of a career strategy is not an instantaneous event, but an ongoing process throughout an individual's career. Feedback obtained from experiences during the implementation of a career strategy, leads to continuous adjustments, made by the individual, to the original strategy (Souerwine, 1978).

The implementation process can be divided into various sub-processes, i.e. the identification of key tasks, the organisation of available resources, the development of a control system, the development of standards and, if necessary, corrective action.

2.5.6.1. Identifying key tasks

The purpose of this step in the implementation process is to identify the key tasks that have to be accomplished if the individual is to achieve his/her strategic goals.

2.5.6.2. Reviewing the organisation's culture

A simple definition of an organisation's culture is “the way we do things around here” (Boase, 1996, p.36). Culture affects all strategies and should, therefore, also be considered before implementing any career strategy (Carrell, Grobler, Elbert, Marx, Hatfield & Van der Schyf, 1997).

2.5.6.3. Organising available resources

Firstly, it is important to establish exactly what resources are available and can be utilised for the implementation of the career strategy. Thereafter, these resources must be organised in such a way that the resources can be used effectively and efficiently (Buhler, 1997; Souerwine, 1978). According to Swart (1995) these resources may include associates, personal qualities and attributes, assets and time.

2.5.6.4. Developing a control system

In order to determine whether current career strategies require adjustment, control devices need to be implemented. These control systems measure the efficiency of the strategies and indicate whether it is necessary to change or adjust the present strategies (Souerwine, 1978).

2.5.6.5. Developing standards

According to Souerwine (1978, p.100) it is not merely enough to collect information on the progress of career plan implementation, but “control devices must also be based on specific performance standards”. These performance standards should be set by the individual as well as by others who are crucially involved with the career strategy.

2.5.6.6. Taking corrective action

Behaviour should be measured against the performance standards, after which the individual can decide whether further action or corrective action is required (Souerwine, 1978).

2.6. CAREER APPRAISAL

Career appraisal is the process by which individuals acquire and use career-related feedback. This feedback is then utilised to determine whether career goals and

career strategies are still applicable and relevant to the individual's current circumstances (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The career appraisal process occurs as follows:

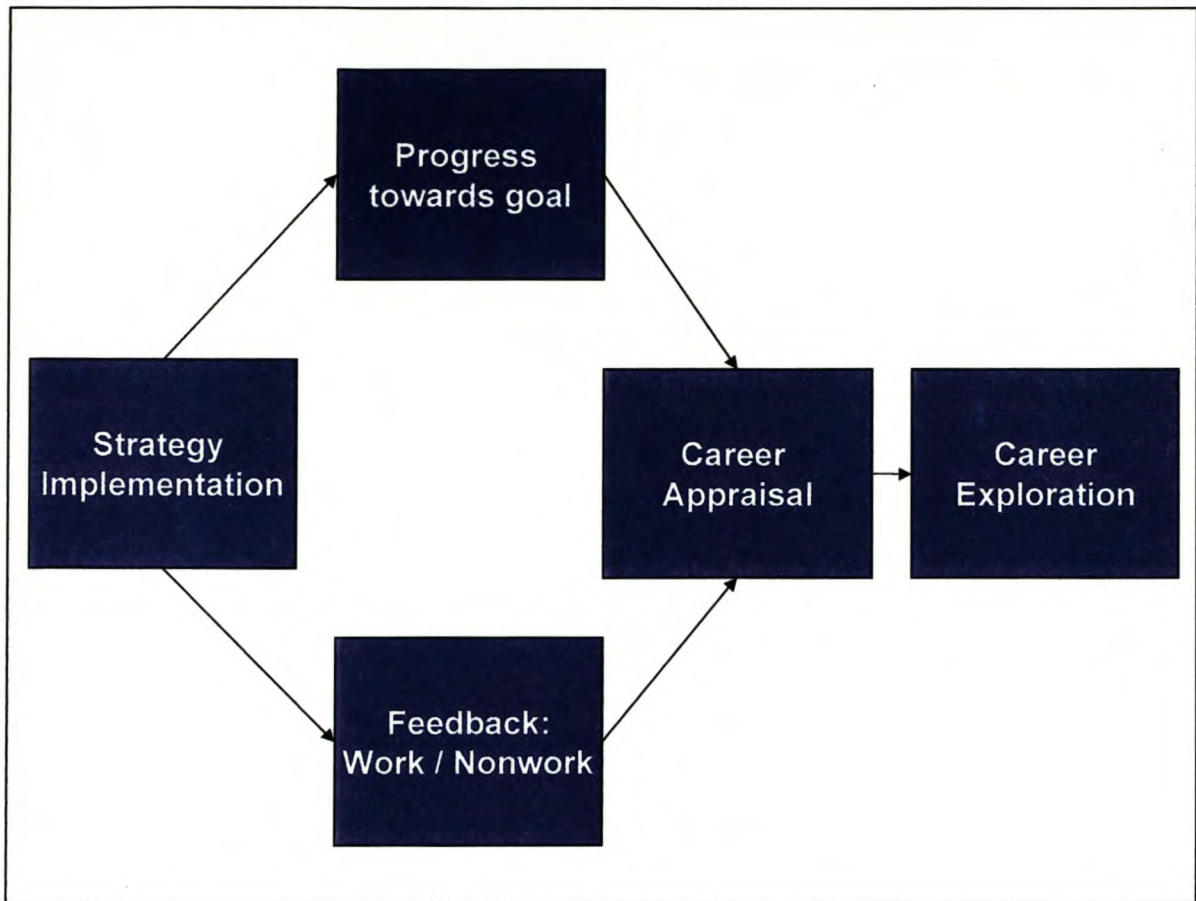


Figure 6: Career appraisal process

(Greenhaus et al., 1994)

2.6.1. Classification of career-related feedback

Career-related feedback can be classified in terms of the following:

2.6.1.1. The conceptual goal

The individual has to evaluate whether his/her career goals are consistent with the information obtained during the self-exploration stage, i.e. his/her attributes, interests, values, preferred life-style, personality, strengths and weaknesses. Thus, the individual has to ascertain whether the career goal correlates with his/her self-assessment (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.6.1.2. The operational goal

The individual has to assess the appropriateness of the operational goal. This is done by assessing whether the operational goal matches the conceptual goal and whether the targeted job is compatible with the conceptual goal (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.6.1.3. Strategy

The purpose of the feedback is to assist the individual in determining whether the career strategy is appropriate in progressing towards his/her career goal. If the current career strategy either does not allow the individual to progress towards his/her career goal, or does not allow the individual to progress fast enough, the strategy should be revised (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.6.2. Sources of feedback

Various sources have been identified to provide feedback with regard to conceptual goals, operational goals and strategies. Ilgen, Fisher and Taylor (1979) have identified three sources of feedback, namely social interactions, observations and self-assessments.

2.6.2.1. Social interactions

Social interaction is a type of feedback that is offered by people who have either undergone similar experiences than the individual has or by people who have observed the individual's behaviour. These people include for instance supervisors, subordinates, mentors, clients, family members, friends and acquaintances (Ilgen et al., 1979).

2.6.2.2. Observations of work and non-work environments

The individual can obtain feedback by observing both the work and non-work environments. The work environment can include a wide range of observations, e.g. production rates, quotas reached, promotions and performance appraisals. The non-work environment

refers to the individual's family life. The deterioration or improvement of family life can give a significant clue as to the success or failure of this type of environment (Greenhaus et al., 1994; Ilgen et al., 1979).

2.6.2.3. Self-assessment

The individual can also serve as his/her own source of feedback by judging his/her own performance and then drawing conclusions therefrom (Ilgen et al., 1979).

2.6.3. Career appraisal control mechanisms

In order to determine whether current career goals and career strategies require adjustment, control devices need to be implemented. These control systems measure the efficiency of the goals and strategies and give an indication of whether it is necessary to change or adjust the present goals and strategies (Souerwine, 1978).

Different control systems exist to determine the usefulness and effectiveness of career goals and career strategies, i.e. the "go no-go" control, the "wait and see" control and the "early warning" control.

2.6.3.1. The "go no-go" control

This type of control entails that the individual sets up a series of tasks in a logical order that is to be strictly adhered to. No task is started, until the preceding task has been completed and accomplished to the individual's level of satisfaction.

Artificial sequencing may delay the individual's progress and is thus a major disadvantage of this control device (Souerwine, 1978).

2.6.3.2. The "wait and see" control

In this kind of system, the individual goes ahead and completes whatever he/she set out to do. Afterwards, the results are checked against the standard. If the results are up to standard (satisfactory), there will be no need for corrective action; if the results are not up to standard, then corrective action is called for.

This control system has certain advantages. Awareness of past results makes forecasting easier, thus being valuable in future planning. This kind of control may also provide a good incentive if the system is set up to promise some reward at the completion of the cycle.

The disadvantage of this control device is that it is applied too late to be effective, in other words the event has already occurred before it is measured. This factor can be debilitating to a career strategy in that an individual may spend more time correcting negative results than in progressing in his/her career (Souerwine, 1978).

2.6.3.3. The “early warning” control

When an individual utilises the “early warning” control, he/she monitors the results of the career strategy as it progresses. If the signs predict potential failure, corrective actions are taken. According to Greenhaus et al. (1994) successful career appraisal requires this type of control system.

Measurement and feedback mechanisms are designed to bring the actual results as close as possible to desired strategic objectives and therefore make remedial action possible. This type of control is “future-orientated and dynamic” (Souerwine, 1978, p.100).

To predict the outcome of a strategy is very difficult, but it is simplified when the individual looks for certain clues, like initial success or failures and shifts in the environment.

Initial success or failures

Clues about potential success or failure can be gathered from results early in the process of career implementation and can be used to predict future behaviour under similar circumstances.

Shifts in environments

Consistent shifts in the environment may also provide valuable clues as to the potential success of a career strategy.

2.6.4. Guidelines for effective career appraisal

Greenhaus et al. (1994) have provided certain guidelines for effective, ongoing career appraisals:

2.6.4.1. Making revisions

Staw and Ross (1987, cited in Greenhaus et al., 1994) observed an “escalation effect” in which individuals persist in a course of action despite its lack of success. This practice is inconsistent with effective career management practices. Revisions to current strategies and goals should be made without the individual having to justify his/her initial strategy and goals.

2.6.4.2. Establishing benchmarks

The usefulness of strategies can be tested against specific benchmarks, that can help identify the strengths and weaknesses of a specific strategy (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.6.4.3. Learning opportunities and vehicles for accomplishment

Strategies should be regarded as learning experiences for the individual and the necessary adjustments, based on any new information acquired, are to be incorporated in the career strategies and in the operational and conceptual career goals (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.6.4.4. Structuring interactions with supervisor to acquire desired information

The individual can enter into a performance appraisal with his/her own agenda that can supplement the existing performance discussion. Feedback can, therefore, be obtained regarding various issues such as strengths, weaknesses, current performance, progress towards career goals and efficiency of career strategies (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.6.4.5. Sharing experiences

The individual can also share experiences with other trustworthy individuals. The feedback obtained from these shared experiences could be beneficial to all parties. Verbally articulating goals, desires, reservations and strategies can assist the individual in clarifying his/her own feelings. Feedback obtained from trustworthy individuals can also serve as an educational experience for the individual in that he/she can learn from their successes, failures and revelations (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.6.4.6. Feedback from non-work sources

Work life affects non-work life and non-work life affects work life. Feedback should, therefore, be obtained from the non-work sources to determine their feelings and attitudes regarding the individual's work life (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

2.7. CONCLUSION

This Chapter provided an overview of the literature survey pertaining to one of the major constructs in this study, i.e. *career self-management*. It can therefore be concluded that career self-management is an extensive ongoing process, which involves four major sub-processes - career exploration, career goal setting, career strategising and career appraising.

Chapter 3 will accordingly give an overview of the literature survey conducted on the second major construct, namely *job performance*.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW: JOB PERFORMANCE

This Chapter will give an overview of the literature survey that was conducted on the construct job performance. The literature survey will include a definition of the variable, the elements that constitute job performance, models of the construct, determinants thereof as well as the management aspects pertaining to job performance.

3.1. DEFINING THE CONSTRUCT

A Chinese proverb states: “For every hundred men hacking away at the leaves of a diseased tree, only one man stops to inspect the roots”. Why would one person stop and inspect the roots, but the next one just continues hacking away the leaves day after day? The answer is captured in the concept of job performance – that aspect of an employee’s behaviour which organisations are most desirous of measuring and influencing.

Job performance is of critical importance to any business or operation and cannot be over-emphasised. The success of a company is directly dependent on the job performance of its individual employees (Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk, 1995).

In virtually any work setting, there will be some individuals whose job performance is excellent, some that are average and some that do not meet expectations. Just as individuals differ in terms of their skills, values, knowledge and other attributes, they also differ in terms of their level of motivation and their level of ability - and consequently also their level of job performance.

Various individuals have defined and explained the concept of job performance. Job performance is defined in behavioural terms by *The Concise Dictionary of Management* as “the way a job or task is done by an individual, a group or an organisation” (Statt, 1991, p.110). Another definition offered is that it includes those outcomes that are produced or behaviours that are displayed in order to perform certain job activities over a specific period of time (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984).

Rosenberg (1978, p.331) defines this construct in a similar fashion when stating that “performance is what a person does when faced with a task”. McCloy, Campbell and Cudeck (1994, p.493) define performance as “behaviours or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organisation”, but emphasise that performance is not the outcome, consequence or result of the behaviour or action, but the action itself.

On the other hand, job performance can also be viewed in more definite and calculable terms, by specifically taking the outputs into consideration. Torrington (1974) refers to job performance as the rate of output achieved by a worker over a day or shift by reference to a performance scale or a rating scale. The construct also refers to “the quality and quantity of outputs” (Gerber et al., 1995, p.28). Coetsee (1996) offers another view on the construct when he states that high job performance is obtained when the individual achieves his/her goals and meets expectations. High performance is regarded as “producing results much better than expected” (Fletcher, 1993, p.2).

3.2. ELEMENTS OF JOB PERFORMANCE

In order to capture the essence of the construct job performance, it is important to establish the elements that constitute this variable.

Lawler (1973), Maier (1955), Porter & Lawler (1968) and Vroom (1964) summarised the elements of job performance as follows:

$$\text{Performance} = \text{Ability} \times \text{Motivation (Effort)}$$

According to this formula, job performance is the product of ability (the capacity to work) and motivation (the will to work). Both elements have to be present for an individual to be able to perform well at his/her job (Fleishman, cited in Vroom, 1964; Baldwin, cited in Vroom, 1964).

3.2.1. Ability

Ability can be defined as the potential to perform a task; it refers to what an individual “can do” (Vroom, 1964).

3.2.1.1. Elements of ability

An individual's ability is determined by certain elements. According to Whetten et al. (1995) ability is the product of *aptitude* multiplied by *training* and *resources*.

Aptitude refers to the native skills and abilities that an individual brings to his/her job, i.e. physical and mental capabilities and personality characteristics (Whetten & Cameron, 1995).

Training represents another important aspect of the ability equation. "If an applicant has minor deficiencies in skill aptitude but possesses many other desirable characteristics, an intensive training program can be used to increase the applicant's qualifications to perform the job." (Wanous, 1980, cited in Whetten et al., 1995, p.361.)

A third situational component also plays a role in contributing to an individual's job performance, i.e. adequate *resources*. Highly capable and well-trained individuals are often placed in situations that either inhibit job performance or do not contribute to enhanced job performance. Specifically, the individuals are not given the resources (technical, human resources, political) to perform their work efficiently (Whetten et al., 1995).

Lawler (1994, p.11) provides the following equation to explain ability:

$$\text{Ability} = f [\text{Aptitude} \times (\text{Training} + \text{Experience})]$$

He includes a fourth component, namely *experience*, in this equation, which can thus also play a role with regard to an individual's ability.

3.2.1.2. Ability deterioration

An individual's ability might deteriorate due to various reasons, such as an improper assessment during the screening process prior to employment, increased requirements of the job, an individual who is promoted into a higher-level position that is too demanding (the "Peter Principle"), reduction in human and material support etc. (Whetten et al., 1995; Carrell et al., 1997).

Individuals, employed in managerial capacities, may also experience deterioration with regard to their abilities. Whetten et al. (1995) indicated that deterioration in the case of a manager's ability, will manifest itself in one of three ways:

Taking refuge in a speciality

Managers show signs of inability when they respond to situations not by managing, but by retreating to their technical speciality (Whetten et al., 1995).

Focusing on past performance

Another "danger signal" of ability deterioration is when a manager measures his/her value to the organisation in terms of past performance, or on the basis of former standards (Whetten et al., 1995).

Exaggerating aspects of the leadership role

Managers who have lost confidence in their abilities are normally very defensive, which leads them to exaggerate one aspect of their leadership role. This results in either the manager delegating most of his/her responsibilities, or becoming "devil's advocates", but instead of stimulating creativity, they create negativism, or they attend to every detail to an extent far beyond its practical value (Whetten et al., 1995).

Manifestations of ability deterioration amongst individuals employed in non-managerial positions, should also be observed and monitored closely by the supervisor / manager.

3.2.1.3. Remedies for ability deterioration

Once it has been ascertained that a lack of ability is the primary cause of an individual's poor job performance, certain remedies can be applied to correct his/her inability to perform certain work-related tasks.

“Resupply”

The first remedy focuses on the external causes of the ability problem. The availability of the necessary support and resources will, therefore, be investigated during this phase (Whetten et al., 1995).

“Retrain”

The necessary training should be provided to the individual to assist him/her to correct the ability deficiency (Whetten et al., 1995).

“Refitting”

In many cases, resupplying and retraining are insufficient remedies for poor job performance. The third remedy entails that the individual be refitted to his/her task assignments. While the individual remains on the job, the components of his/her work are analysed and different combinations of tasks and abilities are explored, that accomplish organisational objectives and provide meaningful and rewarding work (Whetten et al., 1995).

“Reassign”

If the previous remedy has proved unsuccessful, the next alternative remedy to consider would be to reassign the poor work performer. This reassignment could entail that the individual be assigned to a position of less responsibility or to one requiring less technical knowledge or interpersonal skills (Whetten et al., 1995).

“Release”

If retraining and the creative redefinition of task assignments have been unsuccessful and if no other opportunities exist in the organisation for the reassignment of the individual, the last remedy would be to release the individual (Whetten et al., 1995).

3.2.1.4. Effects of ability on job performance

A relationship exists between job performance and ability, as shown in Figure 7 (O'Leary & Hansen, cited in Landy, Zedeck & Cleveland, 1983).

If an individual's ability is below average, it is expected that his/her performance will, likewise, be below average. On the other hand, higher performance outcomes may be indicative of higher ability (O'Leary & Hansen, cited in Landy et al., 1983).

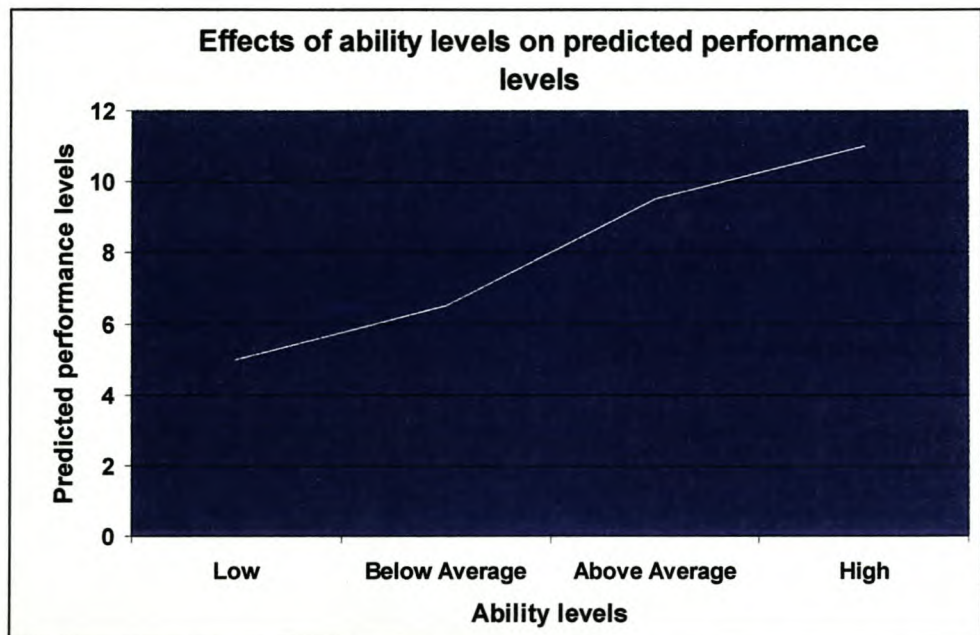


Figure 7: Effects of ability levels on predicted performance levels
(O'Leary & Hansen, cited in Landy et al., 1983)

3.2.2. Motivation (Effort)

The second element that plays a role in determining an individual's job performance, is motivation.

Motivation can be defined as "the force that moves people to perform their jobs" (Smither, 1994, p.204). Beelson and Steiner (1964, p.242) add to the previous definition when stating that motivation is "an inner state that energizes, or moves, and that directs or channels behaviour towards goals". Another definition offered to describe this construct is "those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary

actions that are goal directed" (Kreitner et al., 1995, p.142). Atkinson (1964, cited in Steers & Porter, 1975, p.5) views this variable as "contemporary (immediate) influences on the direction, vigor, and persistence of action".

In conclusion, motivation is a variable that is concerned with a set of independent / dependent variable relationships that explain the direction, amplitude and persistence of an individual's behaviour (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976, cited in Steers & Porter, 1991).

3.2.2.1. Elements of motivation

Whilst an individual's ability tends to remain stable over a long period of time, motivation fluctuates. It is therefore very important that an employee's motivation is monitored and frequently recharged by his/her manager. "Effective managers devote considerable time to gauging and strengthening their subordinates' motivation, as reflected in their effort and concern" (Whetten et al., 1995, p.365).

Motivation represents an individual's desire and commitment and is manifested as effort.

Commitment

Commitment can be explained by means of an equation. According to Coetsee (1996, p.160) an individual's commitment is dependent on the following elements:

Knowledge x Information x Empowerment x Rewards & Recognition x Shared goals and values.

The higher any of these elements, the greater an individual's commitment will be. The greater an individual's commitment, the greater his/her level of motivation will accordingly be.

Desire

Desire is an individual's persistence to perform; the "passion" for his/her work. An individual who displays a high level of desire is one

who finds a sense of self-worth and pride in his/her work (Whetten et al., 1995).

The greater an individual's desire, the greater his/her level of motivation will be.

3.2.2.2. Process of motivation

The motivation process is depicted in Figure 8. According to this process, human behaviour is a result of certain needs that individuals have. If a need is unfulfilled, an urge develops to fulfil the need. This urge causes the individual to release energy to rectify the situation by behaving in a certain manner. The individual's behaviour is aimed at a certain goal (Gerber et al., 1995; Steers et al., 1991).

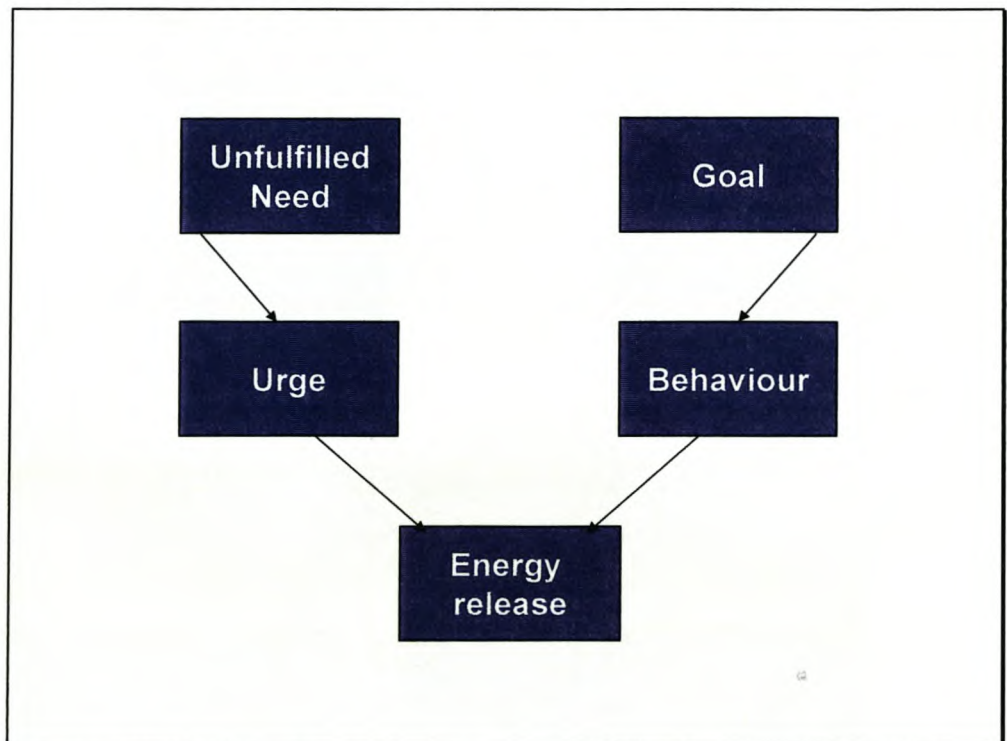


Figure 8: The process of motivation

(Gerber et al., 1995)

3.2.2.3. Theories of motivation

The theoretical models of motivation explain the construct of motivation and also its link with various other constructs, such as job performance.

Motivation theories can be divided into three categories, i.e. content theories, process theories and reinforcement theories.

Content theories of motivation

The content theories are “probably the most popular theories about worker motivation” (Smither, 1994, p.205). These theories focus on the drives within a worker. The notion that individuals are motivated or not motivated to do well on the job is explained in terms of intrinsic needs that differ according to individual experience (Cherrington, 1991, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Gerber et al., 1995; Smit & Cronjè, 1992).

The need theories include Maslow’s need theory, Alderfer’s ERG theory, Herzberg’s two-factor theory and McClelland’s achievement motivation theory.

Maslow’s Hierarchy

Maslow regarded human needs to be hierarchical in nature, as illustrated in Figure 9.

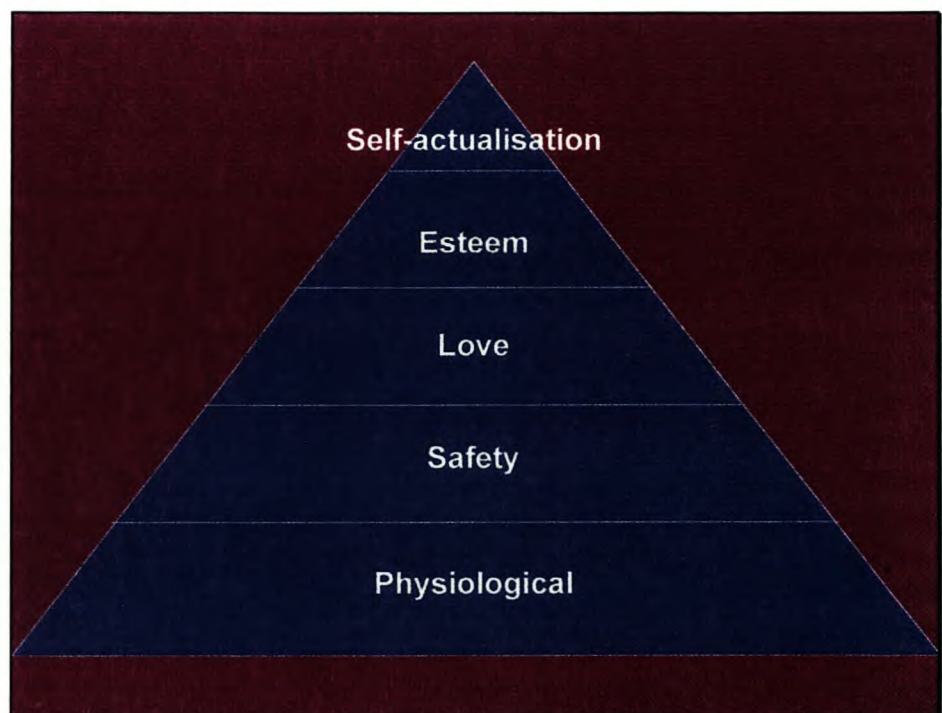


Figure 9: Maslow's Need Hierarchy

(Maslow, cited in Kreitner et al., 1995)

Maslow regards motivation to be hierarchical and the accomplishment of goals on higher levels cannot occur before lower level goals are met. The first level of needs concerns phenomena that are necessary for survival, e.g. food, shelter and warmth. Once the first level goals are met, the individual's needs focus on a consistent, orderly and secure environment. At the third level of the hierarchy, the individual requires intimate relationships. The next level of needs concern esteem and respect and the highest level of the hierarchy relates to the individual's self-actualisation (Carrell et al., 1998; Gerber et al., 1995; Kreitner et al., 1995; Muchinsky, 1990; Smit et al., 1992).

According to Maslow's theory, the level at which the individual is functioning affects motivation. Motivators will only serve their purpose if they address the level at which the individual is operating. In other words, once a need is fulfilled, it will no longer motivate behaviour (Cherrington, 1991, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Kermally, 1997; Muchinsky, 1990).

ERG Theory

A second major theory, based on needs, was developed by Alderfer. The name of this theory is the ERG Theory, which stands for three different needs, i.e. existence, relatedness and growth needs (Muchinsky, 1990).

Existence needs refer to all forms of material and physiological needs necessary to sustain human existence. These needs are satisfied by environmental factors such as food, water, pay and working conditions (Cherrington, 1991, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

Relatedness needs include all socially orientated needs which involve relationships with "significant others", e.g. fellow employees, family and friends (Cherrington, 1991, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

Growth needs are those needs related to the development of human potential. These needs are normally met by developing abilities and

capabilities that are important to the specific individual (Cherrington, 1991, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Muchinsky, 1990).

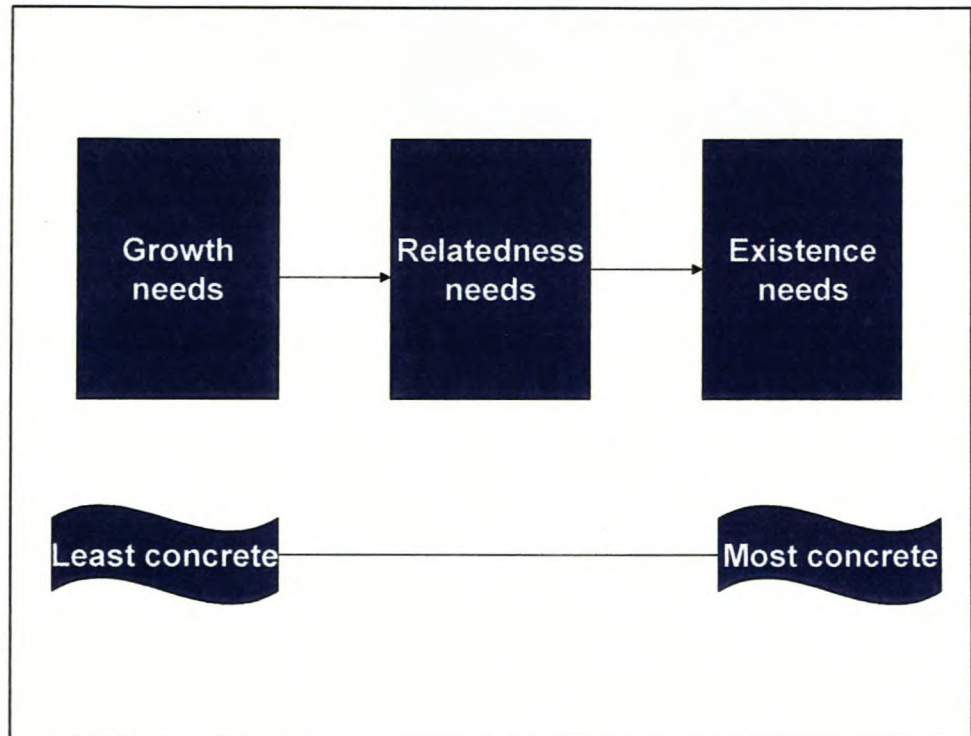


Figure 10: Alderfer's Continuum of ERG Needs

(Muchinsky, 1990)

As indicated by Figure 10, Alderfer arranged the various needs along a continuum of concreteness. Existence needs are the most concrete needs as opposed to the growth needs that are fairly abstract (Muchinsky, 1990).

This theory allows for movement back and forth along the continuum. Alderfer referred to the fulfilment of the growth and relatedness needs as fulfilment progression and to the fulfilment of more concrete needs as frustration regression. If an individual becomes frustrated in satisfying higher needs, he/she would regress toward fulfilling lower needs, such as the existence needs (Carrell et al., 1998; Muchinsky, 1990).

Two-factor Theory

According to Herzberg's two-factor theory, two factors motivate individuals, namely hygiene factors and motivators (Herzberg, cited in Harvard Business Review, 1990).

Hygiene factors are job characteristics associated with job dissatisfaction. These include conditions that occur in the work context or the environment, such as salary, management, working conditions, supervision, security etc. (Herzberg, cited in Harvard Business Review, 1990; Kreitner et al., 1995; Smit et al., 1992; Smither, 1994).

On the other hand, motivators are factors intrinsic to the job and include job characteristics associated with job satisfaction e.g. achievement, growth, advancement, recognition for achievement and the work itself (Herzberg, cited in Harvard Business Review, 1990; Kreitner et al., 1995; Smit et al., 1992; Smither, 1994).

Although individuals might complain about a lack of hygiene factors, motivators are the critical factors in job performance. "If motivators are in sufficient supply, then workers will continue to perform at high levels. If motivators are scarce, even high-quality hygiene factors are unlikely to be sufficient to keep employees motivated." (Smither, 1994, p.207.)

Achievement Motivation Theory

David McClelland formulated this theory in 1961. Litwin and Stringer (1968, p.12) summarise McClelland's assumption as follows: "A person's aroused motivation to behave in a particular way is said to depend on the strength of readiness of his motives and on two kinds of perceptions of the situation: his expectancies of goal-attainment and the incentive values he attaches to the goal presented."

McClelland suggests the following formula to explain the concept of aroused motivation:

$M \times E \times I$, where

M = *strength of the basic motive*

E = *expectancy to attain the goal*

I = *incentive values of the goal*

(Gerber et al., 1995).

McClelland acknowledges the fact that individuals have many needs, but states that the need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining the level of job performance.

The need for achievement is defined as “competition with a standard of excellence” (McClelland, cited in Smither, 1994, p.209). Murray (cited in Kreitner et al., 1995, p.148) defines this need by the following desires: “to accomplish something difficult; to master, manipulate, or organise physical objects, human beings, or ideas; to do this as rapidly and as independently as possible; to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard; to excel one’s self; to rival and surpass others; and to increase self-regard by successfully exercising talent”.

An individual with a high need for achievement is likely to do a good job at everything that he/she attempts. Achieving individuals focus on personal improvement, prefer to work individually and like feedback on their performances (Cherrington, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

A need for affiliation is another need that individuals may have in the workplace. For such individuals, social relations at work are more important than accomplishments. These individuals have a strong desire for approval and reassurance from others, they have a tendency to conform to the wishes and norms of others and they have a sincere interest in the feelings of other people (Cherrington, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Smither, 1994).

The third major need that individuals have is the need for power. This need is often present in management employees. Individuals who possess this need are characterised by a desire to influence and direct somebody else, a desire to exercise control over others and

are concerned with the maintenance of a leader-follower relationship (Smither, 1994; Cherrington, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

Process theories of motivation

Equity Theory

According to Adam's Equity Theory, the level of effort an individual is willing to expend reflects how that individual perceives the fairness of his/her world. An individual's job performance is thus directly linked to the amount of perceived fairness (Gerber et al., 1995; Kreitner et al., 1995; Mowday, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

Equity Theory holds that job performance is a function of comparing the rewards an individual receives with those received by other individuals. The assumption is, therefore, that individuals will work hard if they believe that the payoffs are worth the effort, i.e. they perceive equity (Kreitner et al., 1995; Mowday, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

If, however, the individual perceives inequity in the situation, he/she will change either his/her beliefs or behaviour in order to bring the situation into equilibrium. The individual can alter the situation in one of the following ways: altering the inputs, altering the outcomes, leaving the current situation, acting on the other individual e.g. by sabotage, or lastly, by altering the object of comparison (Smither, 1994).

The Equity Theory is thus based on exchanges. An individual exchanges a certain amount of effort and expects to get certain things in return. If an individual experiences inequity, however, he/she will change either his/her beliefs or behaviour to bring the situation into equilibrium.

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theories focus on three elements: the effort an individual expends, the individual's beliefs about the probable outcomes and

the value that the individual places on those outcomes (Smither, 1994).

Vroom (1964) introduced the Expectancy Theory. This theory is a cognitive and rational model of motivation, in which the individual estimates probabilities and makes choices among alternatives. Vroom's theory assumes that the behaviour of individuals results from conscious choices among alternatives and these choices are systematically related to psychological processes (Gerber et al., 1995; Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

Figure 11 depicts Vroom's motivation process:

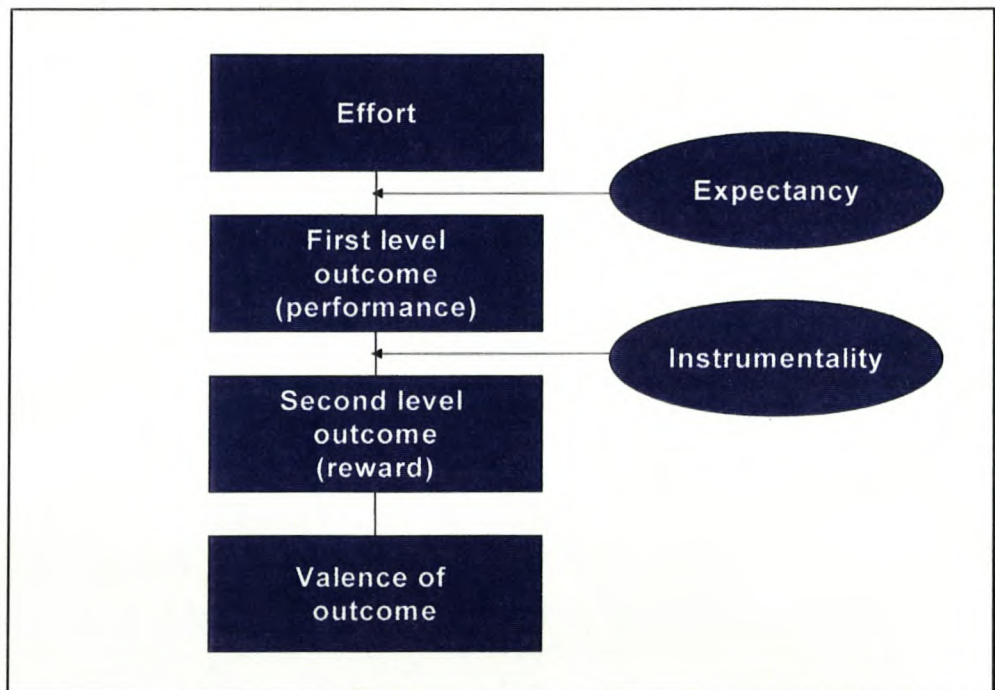


Figure 11: Vroom's Motivation Process

(Milton, 1981)

The expectancy formula is:

$Force = Expectancy \times Valence$, where

Expectancy relates to the probability of an outcome occurring;

Force is that which compels and drives an individual to act;

The perceived desirability, worth, value or attractiveness of the outcomes can be defined as *valence*.

(Lawler, 1994; Nadler & Lawler, cited in Hackman, Lawler & Porter, 1977; Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Smither, 1994).

This theory is built on the principle that an individual's belief that effort will result in effective performance, is a motivational factor. It influences motivation even more than the belief that effective performance will lead to certain rewards (Maier & Verser, 1982).

The Expectancy Theory has certain advantages. This theory can be applied in many situations and not only in the working environment. This theory is also dynamic in that it reflects changes.

Porter and Lawler (1968, p.17) provided a model (as shown in Figure 12) that extends Vroom's work and attempts to explain the phenomenon of job performance:

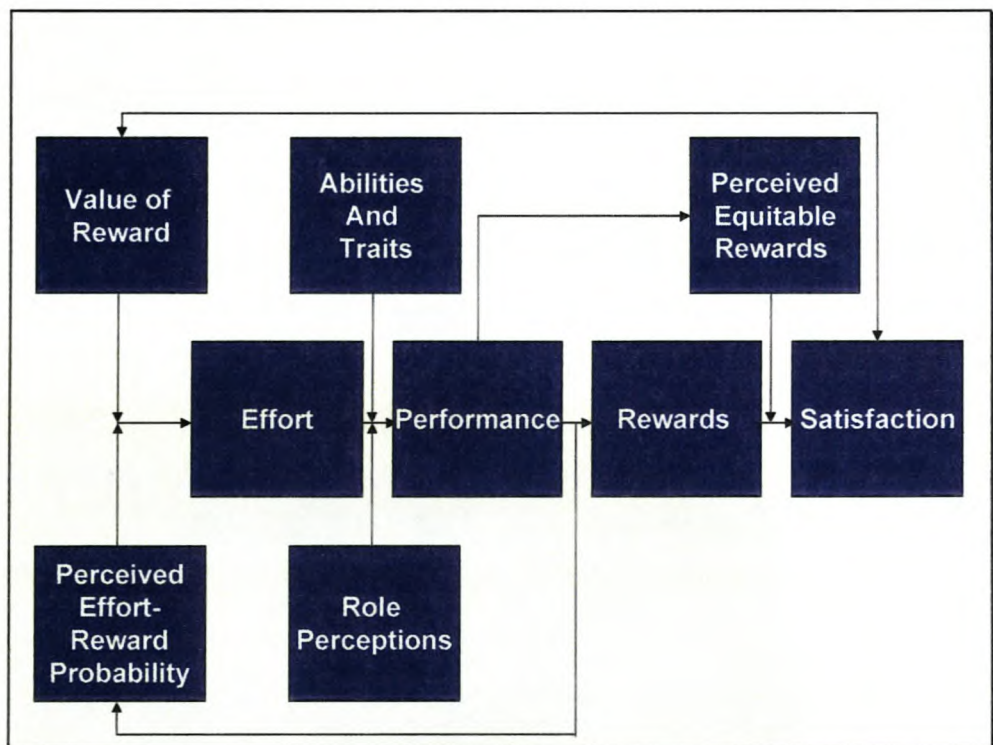


Figure 12: Model of Job Performance

(Porter et al., 1968; Kreitner et al., 1995; Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991)

Variables contained in the model:

- Value of reward

This variable refers to the attractiveness and desirability of a possible outcome of an individual's behaviour in the work situation (Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Porter et al., 1968).

The degree of attractiveness of a specific reward is dependent on the individual. Some individuals might regard a promotion or a merit salary increase as a great reward, whilst others place a higher emphasis on the intrinsic feeling of accomplishment or on the friendship of fellow workers (Porter et al., 1968).

- Effort-Reward Probability

This variable refers to the individual's expectations regarding the likelihood that given amounts of rewards depend upon given amounts of effort on his/her behalf (Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Porter et al., 1968).

Such expectations can be divided into two subsidiary expectations:

- (a) The perceived probability that reward depends upon performance (Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991).
- (b) The perceived probability that performance depends upon effort (Nadler & Lawler, cited in Hackman et al., 1977; Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

These two subsidiary probabilities are related in an interactive way: if either of the two probabilities are low, the probability that reward depends upon effort must necessarily also be low (Pinder, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Porter et al., 1968).

- Effort

The variable *effort* refers to the physical and/or mental energy that an individual expends to perform a task (Porter et al., 1968).

Effort does not necessarily correlate with how successfully the task is carried out, but gives an indication of how hard the individual attempts an activity (Porter et al., 1968).

- Abilities and Traits

Abilities and traits refer to a set of variables that are relatively stable, i.e. long-term characteristics of an individual that remain largely unaffected by momentary changes in the environmental situation, e.g. personality traits, intelligence, values, aptitude, manual skills, etc. (Porter et al., 1968).

- Role Perceptions

This variable refers to the direction of effort, i.e. the types of activities and behaviours that the individual believes that he/she should engage in to ensure effective job performance (Porter et al., 1968).

Role perceptions deal with the way in which the individual defines his/her job and include the types of effort that the individual believes are essential for effective job performance.

If an individual's role perceptions are, therefore, "correct" (in line with those perceptions of his/her superiors), he/she will apply effort in the right direction and, therefore, achieve success, as defined by the organisation. If, however, the individual's perceptions are "incorrect" and do not correspond with the role perceptions of his/her superiors, then it is quite possible that the individual may expend a great deal of effort without effecting successful job performance, as defined by the organisation.

- Job performance

The variable of job performance refers to an individual's accomplishment of tasks that comprise his/her job. Performance, in essence, is the net effect of an individual's effort as modified by his/her abilities, traits and role perceptions (Porter et al., 1968; Lawler, 1973; Maier, 1955).

An individual can contribute to the company's goals in a variety of ways. Consequently, a company has many potential aspects that it can consider for the purposes of evaluating an individual's performance. The challenge for any organisation is in choosing the

most relevant performance dimensions to measure and also the best method to measure these dimensions (Porter et al., 1968).

- Rewards

Rewards are desirable states of affairs that an individual receives from either his/her own thinking or the action of other individuals.

Two aspects regarding rewards is of utmost importance. *Firstly*, the individual who is receiving the reward must value the outcomes positively. *Secondly*, the reward can be either intrinsic in nature, such as a feeling of accomplishment, or extrinsic in the sense that other individuals provide the rewards, e.g. merit pay increases (Porter et al., 1968).

- Perceived equitable rewards

This variable refers to the level or amount of reward that an individual feels that he/she should receive as the result of a given level of performance. It can also refer to the amount of reward that an individual feels should be attached to a particular position or job in the organisation (Porter et al., 1968).

- Satisfaction

This variable can be defined as the extent to which the rewards actually received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of rewards (Porter et al., 1968).

If equitable rewards exceed actual rewards, the individual will be dissatisfied. The smaller the difference between equitable rewards and actual rewards, the smaller the dissatisfaction, while the greater the difference between the rewards, the greater the dissatisfaction of the individual (Porter et al., 1968).

- Relationships between and among variables

The relationships between and among the various variables will be discussed accordingly and in so doing the purpose and focus of this model will become more evident.

The two variables, i.e. the *value of the reward* and the *effort-reward probability*, interact together to produce performance – the greater the value of a reward and the higher the perceived probability that effort will lead to this reward, the greater the effort. These two variables enjoy multiplicative interaction rather than additive interaction. Each variable is therefore a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for effort to be put forth in a job (Porter et al., 1968).

Increased *effort* is expected to lead to increased *performance* under most conditions. This relationship between effort and performance has to be qualified, however, to include the effects of two other variables, namely abilities and traits, and role perceptions. Environmental factors also intervene in and affect this effort-performance relationship per se, but due to their illusory nature, they will not be taken into account in this model (Porter et al., 1968).

Abilities and traits will play a significant role in the task performance of an individual in that these attributes determine the “ceiling” of an individual’s possible performance. Porter et al. (1968) propose that effort and abilities and traits are multiplicative in nature and Lawler (1973) and Vroom (1964) found this contention empirically, logically and psychologically convincing.

Role perceptions also play an important role in the relationship between effort and performance. Even if an individual displays a high level of effort but the effort is misdirected, it will not result in high task performance. The accuracy of role perceptions, therefore, determines the proportion of effort that is relevant to task performance (Porter et al., 1968).

Porter et al. (1968) hypothesise that the greater the connection between *performance* and *rewards*, the more likely an individual will be to exert effort to obtain a high level of performance. Rewards may be, but do not always have to be linked to performance differences. The organisation involved can choose to adopt one or more of a

number of different policies with regard to how closely they want to tie rewards to performance.

The provision of a differential extrinsic reward system is a function of three factors. *Firstly*, such a system is dependent on the organisation's ability to discriminate among individual differences in performance. *Secondly*, the organisation's capability to give rewards will also play a role in the choice of such a system. The *third* factor that plays a role, is the organisation's willingness to give rewards (Porter et al., 1968). The extent to which intrinsic rewards are obtainable in the work situation will depend primarily on the manner in which the individual's job and tasks are structured by the organisation.

High *performance* will lead to high *satisfaction* only if it decreases the gap between the perceived equitable level of rewards and the actual rewards. Since a high performer would have high expectations regarding an equitable level of rewards, it will mean that for a high performer to be satisfied, he/she must receive rewards commensurate with his/her performance. If the rewards fail to live up to what the individual regards as being equitable for his/her performance, then he/she would be a relatively dissatisfied high performer (Porter et al., 1968).

The same principle applies to other scenarios. If, for instance, a low performer has a low equitable level of reward and actually receives a low level of reward, the two values are close together (the gap between the two variables is relatively small) and this individual will, therefore, be a satisfied employee (Porter et al., 1968).

This performance-satisfaction relationship, therefore, explains why, for some employees, performance may not be highly correlated with satisfaction.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from this model is that performance has a more direct effect upon satisfaction than satisfaction has upon performance. Satisfaction is thus primarily a

dependent variable and not a causal variable, although the probability that satisfaction can spur higher levels of performance cannot be excluded (Porter et al., 1968).

- Feedback Relationships

The first feedback relationship exists between *rewards* and the *effort-reward probability*. The feedback loop in the model implies that the way in which an organisation rewards an individual following his/her performance will affect his/her perceptions of the connection of rewards to performance, which in turn will affect the individual's expectation that effort leads to reward (Porter et al., 1968).

An individual's perception of the probability that reward depends upon effort can be increased if the individual's performance is rewarded commensurately. In this regard two aspects should always be taken into consideration. Firstly, what the reward-giver considers to be a reward may not be considered as such by the recipient and, therefore, does not increase the probability in the recipient's mind that increased effort leads to increased rewards. Secondly, the recipient may not perceive the rewards as being connected to his/her performance. Thus the rewards will not lead to increased perception of the probability of effort leading to reward (Porter et al., 1968).

The second feedback relationship is concerned with *satisfaction* in relation to the *value of the reward*. If an individual feels satisfied after having received certain rewards, it will affect the future values of those rewards (Porter et al., 1968).

It has been found in numerous psychological studies that the satisfaction of certain basic needs temporarily reduces the value or attractiveness of rewards connected with those needs (Porter et al., 1968).

Porter et al. (1968) hypothesise, however, that the satisfaction of higher-order needs (e.g. esteem, autonomy, self-actualisation, etc.) does not reduce the attractiveness of those needs.

Goal Setting Theory

"Climb high

Climb far

Your goal the sky

Your aim the star."

(Locke & Latham, 1984, p.1)

Goal Setting Theory is one of the "most well-accepted motivational strategies in organizational science" (Cascio, 1992, p.412).

Edwin Locke, a leading authority on goal setting, defines a goal as "what an individual is trying to accomplish; it is the object or aim of an action" (Locke et al., 1981, p.126).

Locke's model of goal setting is illustrated as follows in Figure 13:

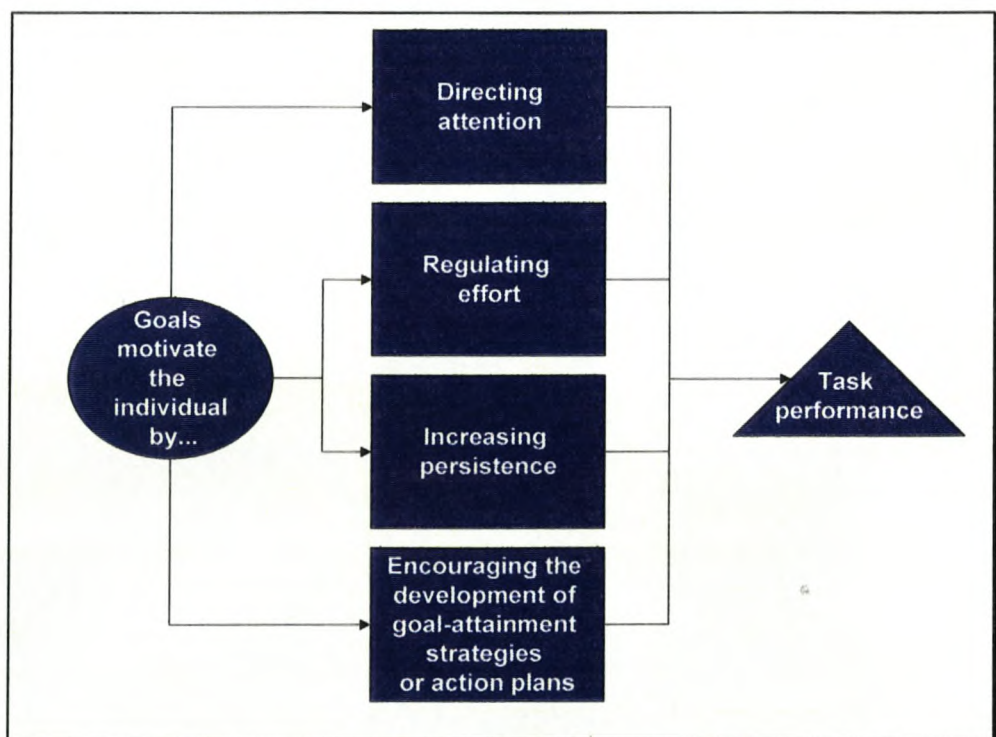


Figure 13: Goal Setting Theory Model

(Locke & Latham, 1990, cited in Kreitner et al., 1995)

According to Locke's model, goal setting has four motivational mechanisms:

- Goals direct attention:

Goals that are meaningful to an individual tend to focus the individual's attention on what is relevant and important.

- Goals regulate effort:

Goals motivate individuals to act. The level of effort expended is proportionate to the difficulty of the goal.

- Goals increase persistence:

A difficult goal that is important to an individual is a constant reminder to the individual to keep exerting effort in the appropriate direction.

- Goals foster strategies and action plans:

Goals encourage individuals to develop strategies and formulate action plans that enable them to achieve their goals.

Performance goals and goal-based reward plans have a significant motivational impact. The goal setting theory was promoted through a widely used management technique, namely Management by Objectives. This management system incorporates participation in decision making, goal setting and objective feedback (Carrell et al., 1998; Smither, 1994).

Of all theories of motivation, this theory is presently generating the most research. Because of the fact that the majority of the studies are conducted in laboratories, the applicability of this theory has not been tested widely (Smither, 1994).

Reinforcement Theory of Motivation

The Reinforcement Theory is based on a fundamental principle of learning – the Law of Effect. Its statement is simple: *Behaviour that is rewarded tends to be repeated, while behaviour that is not rewarded tends not to be repeated.* Therefore, what individuals do, is determined by the outcomes or consequences of their actions (Hamner, cited in Steers et al., 1991; Smit et al., 1992; Smither, 1994).

The reinforcement theories are based on behaviour modification, which is a systematic effort to change an individual's behaviour by manipulating the behaviour reinforcing influences. The basic premise of this theory is that individuals will repeat behaviour which results in positive or pleasurable outcomes (e.g. recognition, a salary increase, a bonus, etc.) and will avoid behaviour that results in negative or unpleasant outcomes (e.g. a bad merit rating, a reprimand, dismissal, etc.)(Carrell et al., 1998).

Four types of reinforcement exist: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction.

Positive reinforcement is the process of strengthening a behaviour by continuously presenting something pleasing (Kreitner et al., 1995; Smit et al., 1992). A positive reinforcer is, therefore, a stimulus, which strengthens the probability of a response (Hamner, cited in Steers et al., 1991).

On the other hand, negative reinforcement is the process of strengthening a behaviour by continuously withdrawing something displeasing (Kreitner et al., 1995; Smit et al., 1992). Komaki, Coombs and Schepman (cited in Steers et al., 1991) define negative reinforcement as the escaping from or the avoiding of negative consequences.

Punishment is "the process of weakening behaviour through either the contingent presentation of something displeasing or the contingent withdrawal of something positive" (Kreitner et al., 1995, p.207).

Extinction is "the weakening of a behaviour by ignoring it or making sure it is not reinforced" (Kreitner et al., 1995, p.208).

Intrinsic Motivation

A more recent approach to motivation is Deci's model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is a cognitive theory, holding

that the internal state of a worker (emotions, motives and cognition) determines the level of effort, rather than vice versa (Smither, 1994).

According to Deci, individuals are motivated by drives for competence, self-determination and autonomy respectively. Therefore, individuals engage in two types of behaviour, i.e. seeking challenging situations and conquering those challenges (Steers et al., 1991).

“When people are intrinsically motivated, they experience interest and enjoyment, they feel competent and self-determining, they perceive the locus of causality for their behaviour to be internal, and in some instances they experience flow. “...insofar as people pressuring themselves, feeling anxious, and working with great urgency, we can be sure that there is at least some extrinsic motivation involved.” (Steers et al., 1991, p.50-51.)

Extrinsic rewards may improve performance in the short term, but the best way to motivate individuals is to confirm their feelings of competence and self-determination. Conversely, motivation will deteriorate if individuals experience situations where their feelings of competence and self-determination are disconfirmed (Smither, 1994; Steers et al., 1991).

Although Deci's theory is intriguing, it is virtually impossible for any theory to make any certain connections between behaviour and cognition. At this stage, the theory lacks clear scientific evidence of support and a means to operationalise the model in the workplace (Smither, 1994).

A Job Performance Model of Motivation

A conceptual model, that captures all the elements of the motivational theories, and explains the phenomenon of job performance. is depicted in Figure 14.

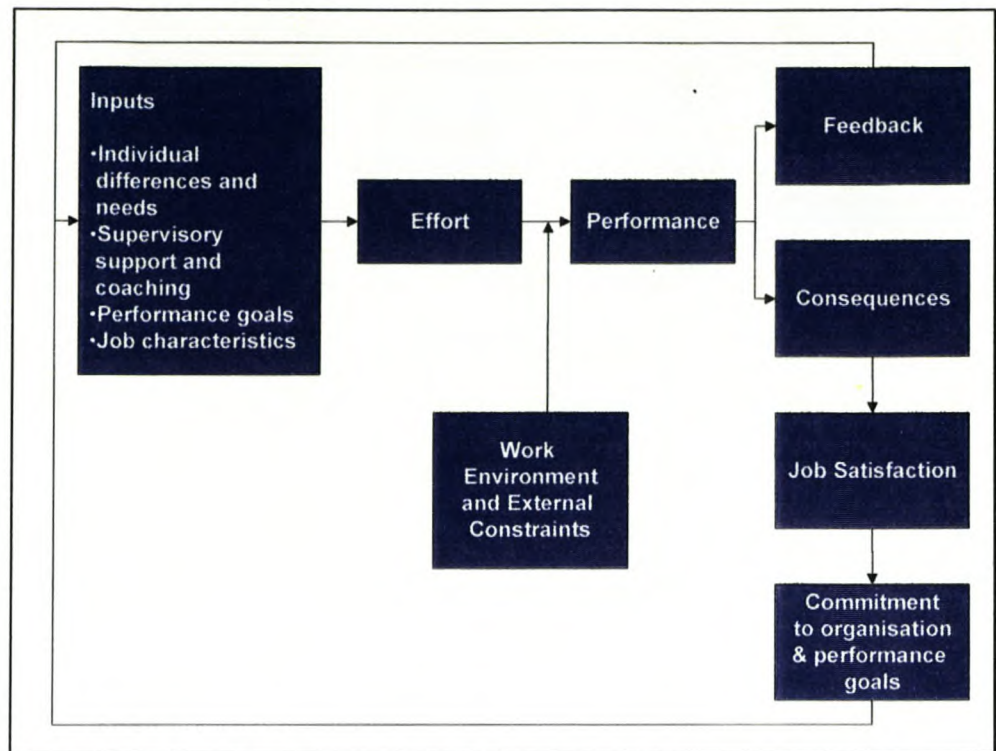


Figure 14: Job Performance Model of Motivation

(Kreitner et al., 1995)

Inputs

Inputs into this system include the individual differences, i.e. abilities, skills, ethics, self-concepts, characteristics, values, personalities and needs that vary among people. All these differences will have an effect on the amount of effort that is exerted by the individual. (Kreitner et al., 1995).

Support and coaching can also serve as a form of input to employee performance. Support includes supplying individuals with adequate resources to get the job done. In addition, coaching involves providing individuals with direction, advice and guidance by means of various techniques such as listening, furnishing individuals with successful role models, showing individuals how to complete complex work tasks and helping the individuals to maintain high self-esteem (Kreitner et al., 1995).

Behaviour of individuals is directed towards obtaining end results. Performance goals are, therefore, a critical input to individual job performance (Kreitner et al., 1995).

Job characteristics, the last input variable, represent the types of tasks completed by individuals and also impact on the effort and thus performance of an individual. These characteristics include aspects like skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the job (Kreitner et al., 1995).

Work environment

The relationship between effort and performance is affected by the work environment and external constraints. These constraints include factors such as defective raw materials, broken equipment, poor management and economic considerations (Kreitner et al., 1995).

Outputs

Various outputs exist as a result of performance. Feedback given by an individual's supervisor is one form of output, as are consequences that reinforce behaviour. Job satisfaction will also be influenced by how positively the individual evaluates the rewards he/she receives for a given level of performance. In general, individuals are more satisfied and also more committed to the organisation and its goals when they receive equitable rewards that they value (Kreitner et al., 1995).

3.3. MODELS OF JOB PERFORMANCE

The substantive nature of job performance has to be identified and explored in order to better explain, predict or improve job performance.

The models of job performance cover two general themes, i.e. performance content and performance determinants (Campbell, Gasser & Oswald, cited in Murphy, 1996).

3.3.1. Models of performance content

These models capture the nature of the construct that composes performance itself. The classic model, multiple factor model, National Research Council model, critical task model and critical deficiency model will accordingly be reviewed.

3.3.1.1. The classic model

This model states that the general factor will account for almost all the relevant true score covariances among observed measures. The goal of measurement is, therefore, to obtain the best possible measure of the general factor. The best possible measure is an objective indicator of an individual's overall contribution that is maintained by the organisation itself, e.g. number of pieces produced, monetary volume of sales (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Schmitt, Borman & Associates, 1993).

3.3.1.2. The multiple factor model

This model assumes that the construct job performance is multidimensional and is composed of a number of basic, distinguishable components. Within this model, an individual may perform well on one performance component, whilst not performing well on others (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

Within the framework of a multifactor model, job performance consists of eight performance components. Each of these components can be divided into sub-factors. The eight major performance components include:

Job-specific task proficiency

This factor gives an indication of the extent to which the individual can perform the core substantive or technical tasks that are central to his/her job (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Schmitt et al., 1993).

Non-job-specific task proficiency

This factor reflects the degree to which the individual can perform tasks that are not specific to his/her job, but must be done in addition to the technical tasks (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Schmitt et al., 1993).

Written and oral communication task proficiency

Many jobs require individuals to make written and oral presentations. The proficiency with which written and oral communication takes place, is thus a critical component of their job performance (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Schmitt et al., 1993).

Demonstration of effort

This component gives an indication of the individual's commitment to his/her job and reflects the frequency with which an individual expends extra effort and works at a high level of intensity (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Schmitt et al., 1993).

Maintenance of personal discipline

This factor refers to the extent to which an individual maintains personal discipline and, in doing so, avoids negative behaviours (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Schmitt et al., 1993).

Facilitation of peer and team performance

This component gives an indication of the degree to which the individual supports his/her peers. The support offered can be to assist them with job-related problems, to act as a "de facto" trainer, to reinforce group participation and to keep the group goal-directed (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Schmitt et al., 1993).

Supervision / leadership

“Proficiency in the supervisory component includes all the behaviours directed at influencing the performance of subordinates through face-to-face interpersonal interaction and influence” (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996, p.267).

Management / administration

This factor refers to all major elements in management that are distinct from direct supervision (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Schmitt et al., 1993).

3.3.1.3. The National Research Council model

The National Research Council in the USA defines performance as “the proficiency with which the individual can do the technical tasks, or has mastered the substantive content, of the job” (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996, p.271).

The best measurement of job performance, as suggested by the Council, is the job sample method. This method entails that the full population of technical and substantive tasks is to be enumerated and a sample of these tasks is to be assessed under standardised conditions (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

3.3.1.4. The critical task model

This model proposes that critical tasks be identified in each job. The most critical tasks could be chosen so as to maximise the extent to which task content differs across various jobs. Performance is then judged according to these critical tasks (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

3.3.1.5. The critical deficiency model

Critical task failures can also be utilised to differentiate individuals' job performance. These criteria will typically be used in jobs where

individual errors can be very serious or even catastrophic (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

3.3.2. Models of performance determinants

These models capture the nature of the determinants of performance and their causal interrelationships.

3.3.2.1. Campbell et al. model

According to this model, performance determinants can be divided into two categories, i.e. direct determinants and indirect determinants.

The direct determinants include *declarative knowledge*, which refers to facts, principles, goals and self-knowledge, *procedural knowledge and skill*, which includes cognitive, psychomotor, interpersonal and self-management skills, as well as *motivation*, which entails the choice to perform, the choice of effort level and the choice to persist at a given level for a specified amount of time (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin, Mitchell & Mahmood, 1997).

The indirect determinants of performance are *individual differences* (e.g. ability, personality, interests), *instructional treatments* (e.g. education, training, and experience), *individual differences x treatment interactions*, *reward systems* and *management practices* (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

The only manner in which indirect determinants can effect job performance is by affecting the direct determinants.

3.3.2.2. Hunter model

This model includes four variables, i.e. cognitive ability, job knowledge, job skills and overall job performance.

Hunter found that there were correlations between ability and job knowledge, between job knowledge and job skills and between job knowledge and job skills on the one hand and overall job

performance on the other. This finding is consistent with Campbell's model of direct and indirect determinants (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

3.3.2.3. Schmidt et al. model

The structure proposed by Hunter was expanded in this model by including length of experience on the job as an additional exogenous variable. It was found that a strong direct link exists between job knowledge and experience and correlations between job skills and experience are also positive.

This finding is contradictory to the finding of Campbell et al., who proposed that no link exists between overall job performance and experience (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphey, 1996).

3.3.2.4. Borman, White, Pulakos and Oppler model

Several additional variables were added in this model to explain the variance in job performance, i.e. achievement orientation, dependability, total number of awards and total number of disciplinary actions.

Similar results were obtained as in the Hunter and Schmidt et al. models. The only difference was that job skills showed a strong correlation with overall performance, whilst job knowledge had no direct effect on job performance but was a strong mediator of the effect of ability differences on job skills (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

3.4. DETERMINANTS OF JOB PERFORMANCE

A number of psychological variables influence the level of an individual's job performance. These determinants can either be motivational in nature or non-motivational (Vroom, 1964).

3.4.1. Non-motivational determinants of job performance

“A person’s ability to perform a task refers to the degree to which he possesses all the psychological attributes necessary for a high level of performance excluding those of a motivational nature.” (Vroom, 1964, p.198.)

Non-motivational determinants of job performance, therefore, include the psychological attributes pertaining to individuals’ abilities.

These non-motivational determinants of job performance include the following:

3.4.1.1. The probability that the worker will discriminate between stimuli requiring different responses

Vroom (1964, p.199) explains this determinant: “If the worker has poor vision and the stimuli are visual, his effectiveness will be lower than if he had normal vision. Similarly, if the cues are auditory, gustatory, olfactory, cutaneous, or kinaesthetic and the worker has deficiencies in the corresponding sense modality, performance will be impaired”.

Sensory deficiencies are, however, not the only conditions affecting the discrimination between two stimuli. Those aspects of ability that reflect the probability of a worker making the relevant discriminations among task-related stimuli include both sensory and cognitive conditions. Cognitive conditions are modifiable by experience (Vroom, 1964).

3.4.1.2. The worker’s knowledge of the correct response to perform to each stimulus

A worker may reliably discriminate between stimuli, but may not know which response to make to each. Such knowledge of how to perform the task may be represented by the correctness of the worker’s expectancies regarding the effects of task responses on the level of job performance (Vroom, 1964).

3.4.1.3. The worker's capacity to execute the correct responses

An individual may be able to make the necessary discriminations among task-related stimuli and may know which response must be made to each stimulus, but may not have the ability to make the necessary response, i.e. the physical ability, emotional ability, intellectual ability, etc.

3.4.1.4. The nature of the relationship between motivation and performance

A direct relationship exists between job performance and motivation. Vroom (1964, p.204) states that "the more motivated the worker is to perform effectively, the more effective his performance". The level of an individual's motivation, therefore, influences the individual's job performance.

3.4.2. Motivational determinants of job performance

These determinants include all the psychological variables of a motivational nature that have an effect on the job performance of workers. The assumption, therefore, is that the more motivated the worker is to perform effectively, the more effective his/her job performance will be (Vroom & Deci, 1970).

The motivational determinants include inter alia supervision, the work group, job content, wages and promotional opportunities (Vroom, 1964).

3.4.2.1. Supervision

Supervisors affect the motivation of workers, which, in turn, has an effect on the individuals' job performance (Keil, 1977).

Consideration and influence in decision making are two critical aspects with regard to supervision that will affect an individual's level of motivation.

Consideration

Consideration plays an important role in the motivation and, therefore, the effectiveness of individuals.

Vroom (1964, p.212) states that “consideration by a supervisor of the needs or feelings of his subordinates has positive effects on their motivation to perform their jobs effectively”. This statement is supported by Davis (1962, p.130) when he concludes, “employee-orientated supervisors tend to get better productivity, motivation and worker satisfaction”. Likert (1959, cited in Vroom, 1964, p.213) asserts that the supervisor who obtains the highest job performance from his/her subordinates, is “supportive, friendly and helpful rather than hostile”. Reducing consideration beyond a certain point may cause difficulties with regard to the subordinates’ morale (Keil, 1977).

Influence in decision making

Supervisory methods, which permit individuals to influence decisions affecting them, result in more effective performance than methods which deny them this kind of influence (Vroom, 1964).

Participation in decision making by subordinates leads not only to greater job satisfaction, but also to better job performance and thus higher productivity (Davis, 1962).

There are two major ways in which the amount of influence in decision making may affect the job performance of individuals.

Subordinate influence and decision quality

The amount of influence afforded to subordinates during the course of the decision making process can have important effects on the nature of decisions reached (Vroom, 1964). Maier (1955) supported this in his research when he found that subordinates could influence decisions positively by increasing the quality of these decisions.

Subordinate influence and the execution of decisions

The productivity of any work group is not only affected by the quality of the decisions, but also by the speed and efficiency with which these decisions are implemented. A high quality decision that is opposed may result in lower productivity than a decision that is lower in quality but that is enthusiastically endorsed by the work group (Vroom, 1964).

“It is clear that the effects of participation in decision making are not confined to the nature of the decision, but also extend to the probability that the decision will be effectively implemented.” (Vroom, 1964, p.228.)

Bachman (1962, cited in Vroom, 1964) found that a relationship exists between the job performance of a worker and the extent to which the individual perceives that he/she has influenced decisions which he/she is expected to carry out.

3.4.2.2. The work group

The work group has certain motivational consequences that affect the job performance of its members.

Social facilitation

Social facilitation refers to the degree of superiority of performance when working in a work group as opposed to working individually (Vroom, 1964).

The conclusion can, therefore, be drawn that job performance increases if individuals work together rather than on their own.

Group norms

Informal relations among members of the same work group are “a two-edged sword” in that it can either influence job performance positively or negatively (Vroom, 1964, p.231).

The valence of effective job performance should be positive where the individual strongly desires acceptance by his/her co-workers and anticipates that he/she will receive this acceptance only if he/she performs effectively. In other words, effective job performance is instrumental to acceptance. On the other hand, the valence of effective job performance should be negative where he/she strongly desires to be accepted by his/her co-workers and expects that he/she will be accepted only if he/she performs ineffectively, i.e. effective performance is negatively instrumental to acceptance. The individual's conception of the level of job performance acceptable to co-workers will only have an effect on the valence of job performance if the co-workers' rejection or acceptance is of importance to the individual (Vroom, 1964).

3.4.2.3. Job content

The content of a job or task has considerable bearing on the strength of his/her motivation to perform it effectively (Vroom, 1964). According to Keil (1977, p.28) "a person who is asked to do things which hold no value, whether intrinsic or instrumental, is likely to get to the point where he will look for a different job – one in which he can perform tasks more congruent with his interests and needs".

Specialisation

Specialisation entails that individuals are selected and placed in jobs that are most conducive to their particular skills and abilities. Individuals are also trained in those skills required for the specific functions that they are to perform (Vroom, 1964).

A functional relationship exists between productivity and the amount of specialisation (Vroom, 1964).

Knowledge of results

There is a wealth of evidence that suggest by enhancing the knowledge of results, the level of job performance can be increased

(Ammons, 1956, cited in Vroom, 1964; Bilodeau and Bilodeau, 1961, cited in Vroom, 1964).

The knowledge of results serves at least three functions. According to Vroom (1964) these functions include a cue function, a learning function and a motivational function.

Cue function

Knowledge of results before the individual has fully completed the task / operation / job may enable the individual to alter his/her responses, thus increasing the chances of being successful.

Learning function

Learning to perform a task or job involves trial and error. Some responses may turn out to be successful whilst others may turn out to be unsuccessful. If success on the tasks is rewarded and failure punished, the individual's job performance will gradually increase. If the worker is prevented from observing the success or failure of his/her responses, however, learning is impaired and no improvement in job performance will occur.

Motivational function

Knowledge of results increases the valence of successful job performance. It appears that subjects working under the "known condition" (have knowledge of results) were motivated by a desire to better their previous performance and increase their current job performance.

Psychological vs Actual job content

Although the actual job content remains the same, the superior can influence the subordinate's conception of the job (the psychological job content) by means of instructions given to him/her, which can in turn influence the job performance of the individual. Two approaches

can be distinguished by which the job content can psychologically be influenced.

The extent to which the task requires valued abilities

One approach that can be used is by telling the individual that the task is a measure of some valued ability, e.g. intelligence.

The individual's job performance is most likely to increase, because the task instruction induces the individual's ego-orientation. The individual will, therefore, believe that if he/she performs well, he/she is intelligent and if performance is poor, it will reflect that he/she is not intelligent (Vroom, 1964).

The extent to which the task requires "possessed" abilities

If an individual believes that he/she possesses an ability and he/she believes that this ability is a prerequisite for effective job performance, the individual will prefer to perform the task effectively rather than ineffectively (Vroom, 1961, cited in Vroom, 1964).

Aronson and Carlsmith (1962, cited in Vroom, 1964) have supported this statement and found in their research that individuals will strive to perform at a level which is consistent with their conceptions of their abilities.

3.4.2.4. Wages

"Wages represent an almost universal form of inducement for individuals to perform." (Vroom, 1964, p.252.)

On the assumption that money is positively valent, the prediction can be made that the valence of effective job performance is directly related to the instrumentality of job performance in the attainment thereof. A large number of studies supported this prediction, indicating that the level of job performance increases as the expected relationship between job performance and wages increases (Vroom, 1964).

3.4.2.5. Promotional opportunities

March and Simon (1958, cited in Vroom, 1964) hypothesised that promotions are desired and that individuals will strive to perform effectively if they expect that, by doing so, they will increase their chances of receiving a promotion.

Georgopoulos, Mahoney and Jones (1957, cited in Vroom, 1964) supported this hypothesis in their research. They found that the level of job performance of individual workers is related to the extent to which they believe that their chances of receiving a promotion are related to their level of performance on their job and to the valence of the promotion.

If individuals are indifferent to receiving a promotion, or if they expect that their chances of receiving it are independent of their level of job performance, they will perform less effectively than if they desired a promotion and believed that their chances of receiving it were directly related to their level of job performance (Vroom, 1964).

3.5. THE MANAGEMENT OF JOB PERFORMANCE

Performance management is one of the major functions in today's turbulent business environment. The management of individuals' job performance forms part of a holistic performance management process, in which the overall performance of an organisation is addressed. It is, therefore, of vital importance that the management of job performance is done professionally and effectively with the aim of ensuring higher productivity and efficiency.

According to Hartle (1997) an integrated performance management process should be designed to encourage open, ongoing communication between the manager and the individual about performance related issues. Performance management should be seen as a flexible process that involves managers and the workforce as partners, but within a framework that sets out how they can best work together. The framework should reduce the extent to which the process is a top-down process by allowing more scope for the individual to manage himself/herself.

3.5.1. The performance management process

Various models of the performance management process exist. The same key activities are addressed in most of these models, but only in different ways or formats.

Two models were chosen from the literature as being the latest and most comprehensive portrayals of the performance management process, i.e. the models of *Armstrong* (1994) and *McAfee & Champagne* (cited in Williams, 1998).

Figure 15 illustrates how Armstrong views the performance management process:

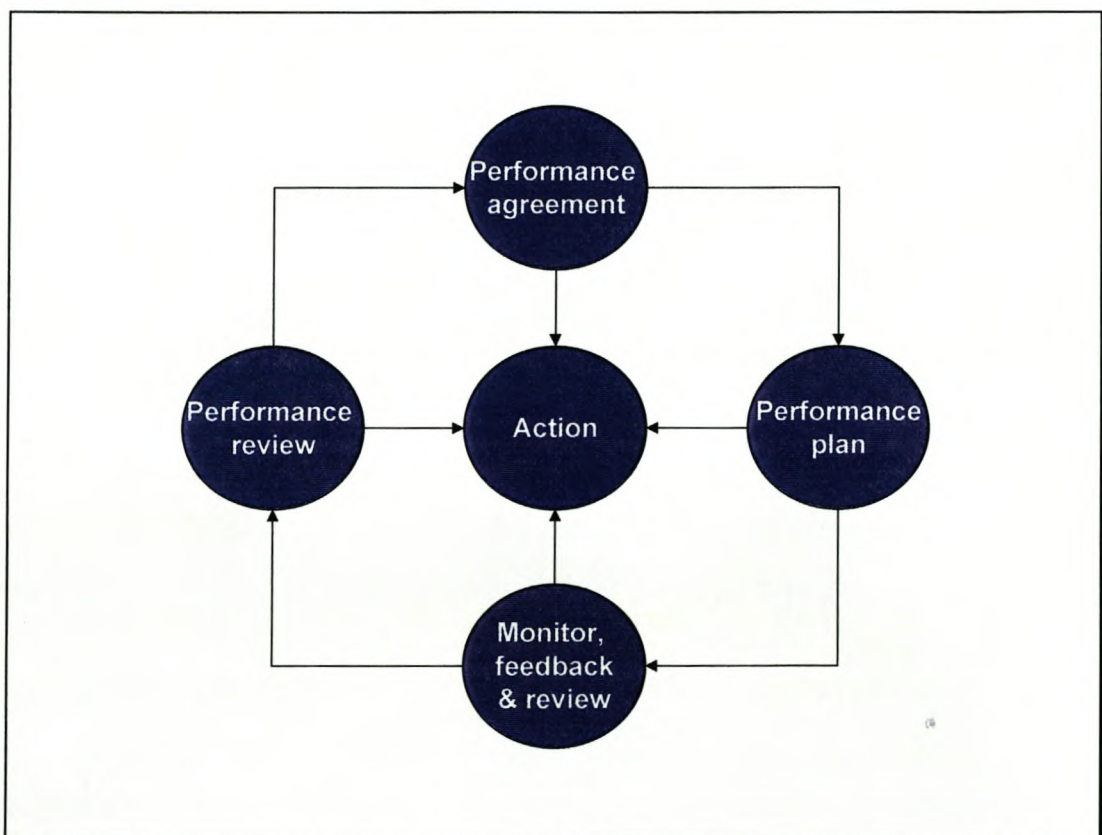


Figure 15: Armstrong's Performance Management Process

(Armstrong, 1994)

McAfee & Champagne (1993, cited in Williams, 1998) view performance management as a threefold process, as shown in Figure 16:

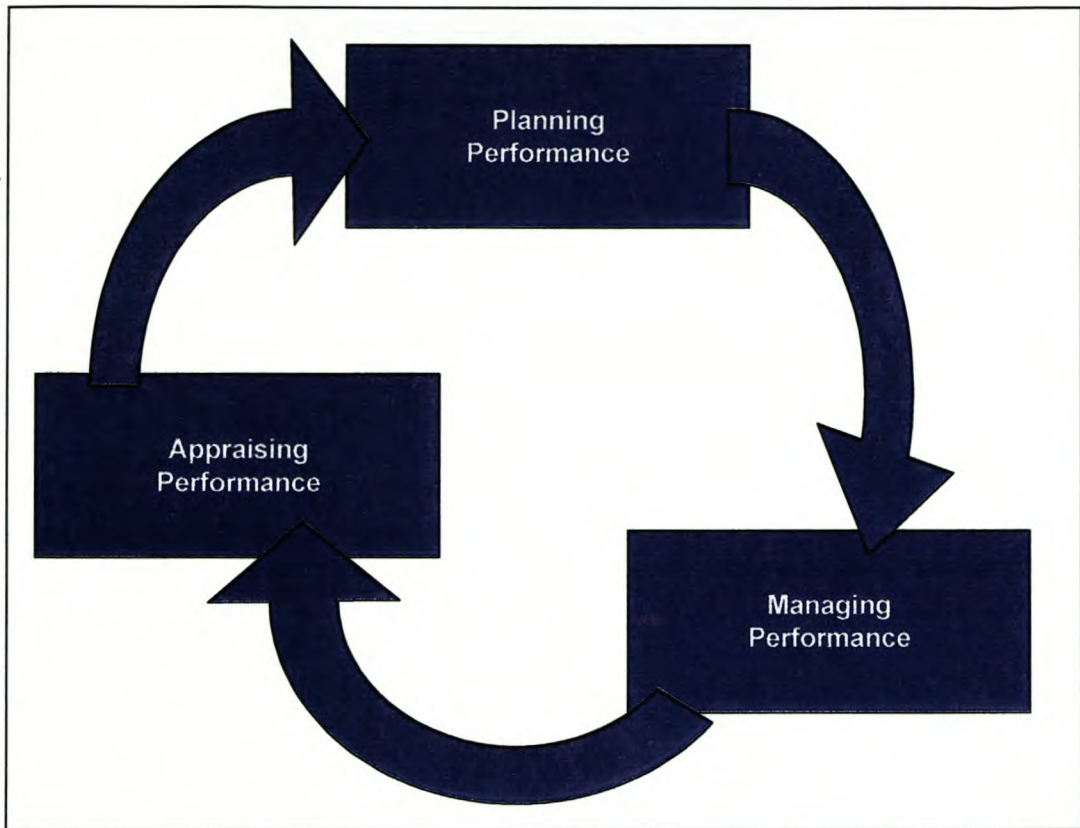


Figure 16: McAfee and Champagne's Performance Management Process
(McAfee & Champagne, 1993, cited in Williams, 1998)

For the purposes of this literature study, the last model was used as a "blue print" according to which the performance management process was analysed.

The performance management process can, therefore, be divided into three major functions, i.e. the planning, managing, and appraising of performance.

3.5.2. Performance planning

"This is the process of identifying the desired performance and gaining employees' commitment to perform those expectations" (Hartle, 1997, p.65).

A planning strategy that solicits the active participation of individuals in the process, will assist in building commitment to the achievement of the objectives (Hartle, 1997).

According to Heneman and Von Hippel (1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997), performance planning can be done by means of three specific steps: scanning the environment, setting clear, obtainable and measurable performance standards and formulating action plans in order to achieve those performance standards (Refer to Figure 17).

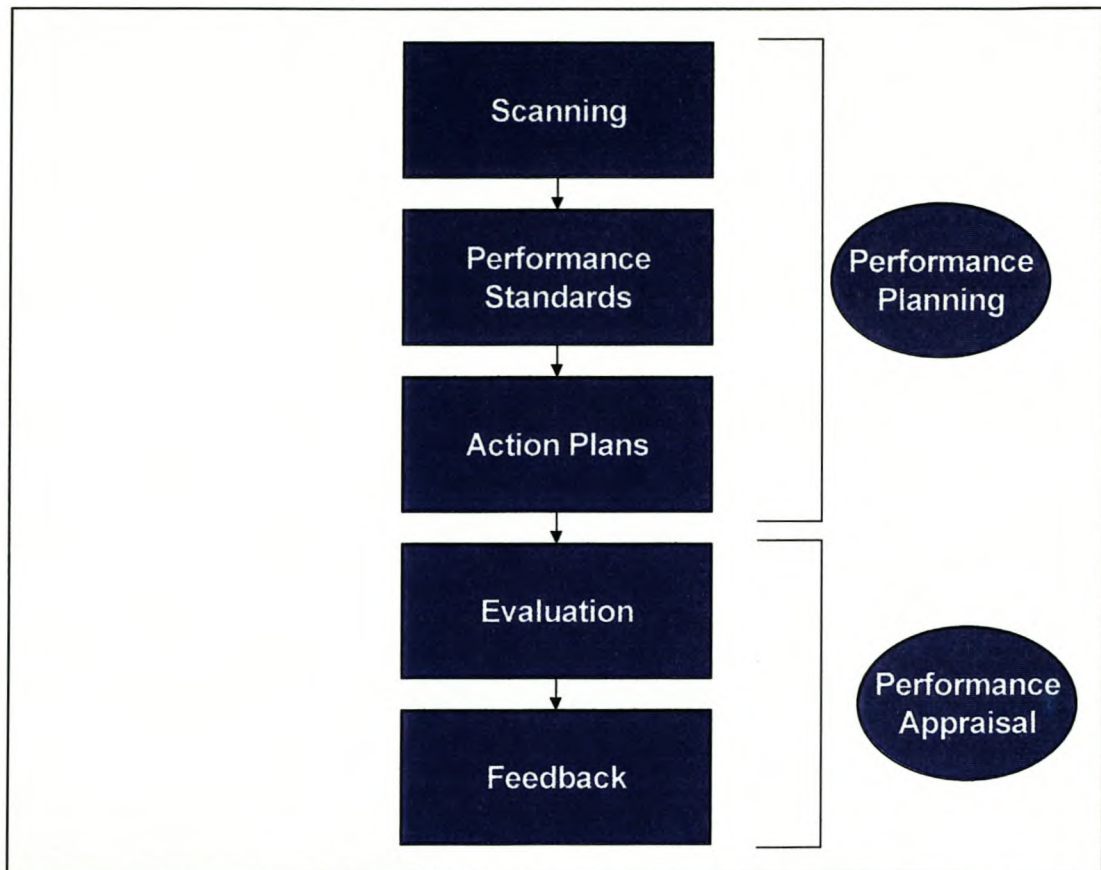


Figure 17: Performance Planning Process

(Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997)

3.5.2.1. Scanning

This process of scanning involves all the activities that are undertaken at the business to obtain planning documents that can be utilised to develop goals for positions which are consistent with the goals of the organisation (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997).

3.5.2.2. Performance standards

Performance standards refer to the principal end results to be achieved in order for the job to be performed satisfactorily (Williams, 1972).

According to Carlyle and Ellison (1987, cited in Schneier, Beatty & Baird, 1987) the process of developing performance standards involves four steps:

- The identification of tasks to be performed by the employee;
- The grouping of related tasks into required elements;
- The designation of required elements, critical to the successful overall performance in the job, as critical elements; and
- The development of performance standards for each task.

Identifying tasks

“A task is a set or series of steps in a job, all of which are needed to produce an identifiable output that can be used, acted upon, or advanced in production by an individual who may or may not be the performer.” (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987, p.76.)

To begin the standard-setting process, the supervisor first has to identify all of the tasks that the employee performs. Thereafter, task statements are written in an action orientation in a three-part format that describes what the employee does, why the work is done and how the work is done (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

Grouping tasks into required elements

After the identification of tasks and the writing of task statements, tasks are grouped into required elements. Tasks may be grouped in one of the following ways, i.e. according to function, unit objectives, projects or project activities, etc. (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

Some tasks will be grouped to form required elements, whilst other tasks will stand alone as required elements. There is no limit to the number of required elements in a job (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

Designating critical elements

A required element becomes a critical element when it is sufficiently important to overall success in the job – that performance below the minimum standard results in unacceptable overall job performance and requires remedial action (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

A critical element is either a continuous activity that will remain an essential component of the job or a special project that will last throughout all, or most, of the appraisal period (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

The factors that are taken into account in determining whether a required element is a critical element include: the percentage of time spent performing the element; the impact on the work unit's mission if an element was performed inadequately; the significant consequences of errors; and the legislative or regulatory requirements that would make the adequate performance of the element critical (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

The number of critical elements for every job varies, but every job must have at least one and not more than seven critical elements (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

Developing performance standards

After tasks have been grouped into required elements and critical elements have been designated, performance standards are developed.

"Performance standards describe the level of performance the employee is expected to achieve and/or the objectives the employee

is expected to accomplish" (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987, p.77).

Performance standards, therefore, refer to "how employees *should* be performing" according to expectations held (Fisher, 1997, p.30).

Before standards are to be developed, performance criteria for each task must be identified. Criteria are those dimensions of task performance that should be measured, i.e. quality, quantity and timeliness (Cadwell, 1994; Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

Performance standards consist of three key components. The first component refers to the worker's output and/or action, i.e. what is being assessed. The second component involves the criteria by which it is assessed – quality, quantity and timeliness. The last component of the performance standard refers to how the performance will be monitored and measured (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987).

Performance standards should have the following characteristics (Carlyle et al., 1987, cited in Schneier et al., 1987; Williams, 1995, cited in Armstrong, 1995):

- Standards should be stated concretely and specifically to enable the employee to know what he/she has to do to meet the standard and to enable the supervisor to measure the employee's actual performance against the standard;
- It should be practical to measure in terms of cost, accuracy and availability of data;
- It should be meaningful and should assess what is important and relevant to the purpose of the job, to the achievement of objectives and/or to the user or recipient of the product or service;
- Standards should be realistic and based on sound rationale, i.e. they should be achievable;

- Employees who perform similar jobs should have similar required and critical elements and performance standards.

3.5.2.3. Action plans

Part of the performance planning process is to develop action plans that specify the activities that must be undertaken in order to accomplish the performance goals and reach the performance standards (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997).

3.5.3. Managing performance

Effective management of job performance entails that good performance is sustained and poor performance is improved.

3.5.3.1. Sustaining good performance

The sustaining of performance refers to the actions taken by management to ensure that an individual's current level of behaviour and performance is reinforced (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997).

Feedback on performance

Feedback is a necessary part of any successful performance management approach in that it can be used by individuals to change their behaviour (Landy et al., 1983).

Feedback can be defined as the process of communication whereby management share their views on the individual's strengths, weaknesses and developmental areas in such a way that they lay the groundwork for behavioural change (Fear & Chiron, 1990; Fowler, 1996).

Spangenberg (1994, p.134) states that without feedback, "good performance can deteriorate and poor performance may simply continue".

According to Marumo (1997) feedback should also inform the individual as to how he/she is progressing with respect to the agreed performance standards.

Feedback should be conducted on an informal basis periodically throughout the year, as well as formally at least once per annum (Marumo, 1997). Cadwell (1994) supports this viewpoint and states that frequent feedback discussions reflect concern for the employee and reduce doubts that the employee might have about the acceptability of his/her performance.

Fowler (1996, p.44) summarises the concept of effective feedback by saying: "If a manager's comments about an employee's performance are seen as biased or ill-informed, and if the emphasis is on fault-finding, the response will be defensive and resentful. The skill of providing effective feedback is, therefore, a valuable element in any manager's portfolio."

Conditions necessary for constructive feedback

Various conditions are required to ensure that constructive and effective feedback takes place.

Firstly, the amount of critical feedback conveyed plays an important role. Research has shown that an individual can deal with criticism on two aspects of his/her job performance, but not with more than that in any one appraisal (Fletcher & Williams, 1985).

Furthermore, any critical comment should be balanced with recognition for work that was well done (Fletcher et al., 1985).

A problem solving orientation should be utilised by the appraiser / rater in order to ensure that difficulties regarding the job are addressed (Fletcher et al., 1985).

Feedback should also not be over-emphasised and the extent to which the individual obtains feedback from other sources should be monitored and considered when giving feedback on a regular basis (Fletcher et al., 1985).

Finally, the relationship between the manager and the subordinate is also a critical condition for effective and constructive feedback, because it is highly unlikely that feedback would be accepted as valid and fair if no relationship and poor communication exists between the two parties (Fletcher et al., 1985).

Models of feedback

Two performance feedback models were developed that explain the process of feedback. The Ilgen et al. model (1979) views feedback as a type of communication process and the Ashford and Cummings model regards feedback to be a resource for the individual work performer (Landy et al., 1983).

- Ilgen et al. model

This model is based on the principle that feedback is a communication process.

Figure 18 reflects the model proposed by Ilgen et al.:

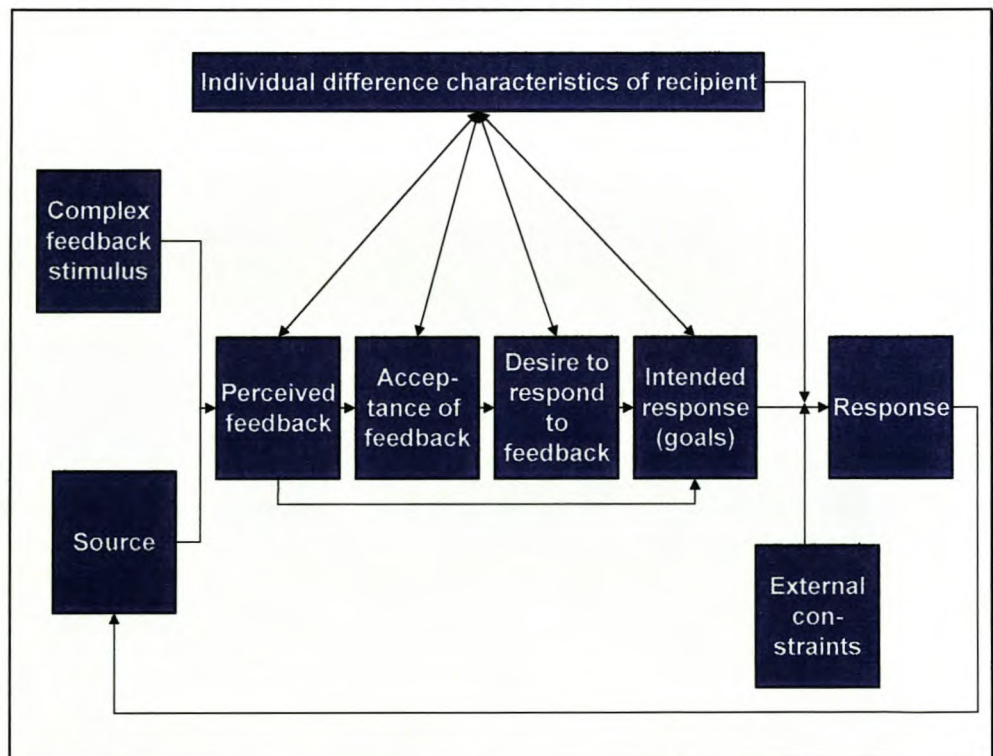


Figure 18: Ilgen et al. model

(Ilgen et al., 1979)

The basic elements of this model include the source of the feedback, the feedback message itself, the recipient of the feedback and their main and interactive impact on the feedback process and reaction (Landy et al., 1983).

The *source* of feedback creates behavioural and attitudinal effects that are generally confounded with effects created by the feedback. It is, therefore, vitally important that the possible source effects are also examined (Landy et al., 1983).

Three categories of feedback sources exist, i.e. others, the task and the individual himself/herself. Others include individuals that have observed the recipient's behaviour and output and who, therefore, have information on his/her effectiveness, e.g. supervisors, co-workers and subordinates. The task can also provide feedback, particularly where the task predominantly involves motor activity or countable output. In other jobs, augmented feedback can be added to make the feedback more significant. The individual can also evaluate his/her own job performance and can thus provide himself/herself with feedback. The measurability of task output, the amount of the individual's experience in performing the task and the individual's level of self-esteem affect not only the degree to which an individual will make self-evaluations, but also the degree to which these evaluations are utilised by the individual (Ilgen et al., 1979; Landy et al., 1983).

Sources have two major characteristics, namely credibility and power. Credible sources are perceived as possessing the expertise to judge an individual's behaviour accurately and trustworthily. Power is the extent of control that the source has over potential rewards and sanctions for the recipient. Both of these characteristics have positive relationships with the recipient's attempt to behave in concordance with feedback (Landy et al., 1983).

The *message* refers to the feedback itself. The feedback message has two primary functions - it gives direction, whilst also serving a

motivational purpose. The directing function is informational in nature in that the recipient is made aware of the particular work behaviours that are appropriate. The motivational function is concerned with relating behaviours with positive and negative rewards or outcomes (Landy et al., 1983).

The *recipient* of the feedback is the individual who performs the job. The process model proposes that the characteristics of the recipient interact with the source and message characteristics, in order to produce a reaction to the performance feedback by the recipient (Landy et al., 1983).

Ilgen et al. (1979) hypothesise that the recipient's *reaction* to feedback involves a four part process, i.e. perception of the feedback, acceptance of the feedback, desire to respond to the feedback and the intended response.

(a) Perceived feedback

Perceived feedback refers to the accuracy with which the recipient perceives the feedback from any given source (Landy et al., 1983).

Ilgen et al. (1979) suggest that source factors, the message and the recipient's characteristics may play a role in perceptions of the feedback.

The source factors such as the type of source that gives the feedback, psychological closeness to the recipient, credibility and power may affect the degree of attention paid to the source by the recipient and thus, influence the accuracy of the perception (Landy et al., 1983).

Three message factors can also influence perceptions, namely the temporal interval between the individual's behaviour and the feedback about the behaviour (timing), the positive or negative tone of the information about behaviour (sign) and how often feedback is given to the recipient (frequency) (Landy et al., 1983).

Characteristics of recipients also play a role in the perceptions of feedback in that self-perceptual sets of reference influence the selective sensing and interpretation of feedback from various sources (Landy et al., 1983).

(b) Acceptance of feedback

The next important aspect of the recipient's reaction to feedback includes the acceptance of feedback. This acceptance of feedback refers to the individual's belief that the feedback is an accurate portrayal of his/her job performance, regardless of the validity of such a belief (Landy et al., 1983).

Various factors play a role in the acceptance of feedback. Source credibility is the principal factor affecting the acceptance of the feedback. The recipient's perception of the source's expertise, the recipient's trust in the source's motives, the congruence of the feedback with the source's role and the reliability of the source are the major determinants of source credibility (Landy et al., 1983).

Other factors that contribute to the degree of acceptance of the feedback are the sign of the message, message consistency and recipient characteristics. With regard to the sign of the feedback, Ilgen et al. (1979) propose that positive feedback is more readily accepted than negative feedback. Message consistency refers to the degree to which the feedback received from a given source is either all positive or all negative. Inconsistent feedback may be attributed to causes beyond the control of the individual and is, therefore, not accepted by the individual (Landy et al., 1983).

Individual characteristics also play a role in the acceptance of feedback. Individuals who possess an internal locus of control may be more likely to accept feedback. Age and seniority will also affect the degree to which individuals are willing to accept feedback (Landy et al., 1983).

(c) Desire to respond

This concept refers to the recipient's willingness to respond to feedback in a way that is consistent with the feedback. Again, source, message and recipient characteristics may affect the desire to respond to the feedback (Landy et al., 1983).

The major source characteristic in influencing the desire to respond to feedback is power. Increased source power would enhance recipient compliance even if the feedback were not accepted (Landy et al., 1983).

Three message characteristics were identified as influencing the desire to respond, i.e. the timing, frequency and sign of the feedback message. With regard to the sign and frequency of feedback, sources more often give positive feedback than negative feedback. Feedback is associated with performance improvement, which means that the recipient's performance should improve over time, which will result in more favourable performance and feedback. Timing may also be confounded with the sign and frequency of the feedback. Sources are more likely to give positive feedback shortly following the appropriate behaviour than they are likely to do with negative feedback (Landy et al., 1983).

Ilgen et al. (1979) suggested, therefore, that feedback should be positive, should provide an increment of information beyond what the recipient already knows and should also not be so frequent as to appear to be controlling.

Individual characteristics also play a role in the recipient's desire to respond to feedback. Feedback that emphasises the individual's competence and control over the task appears to impact positively on individuals whose personal needs are satisfied by the successful completion of work tasks. These individuals have personality traits such as an internal locus of control, high self-esteem and a high need for achievement. Individuals whose personal needs are better satisfied by factors external to the task itself are likely to be

influenced more by feedback concerned with the relationship between task performance and various rewards and outcomes. Such individuals display personality traits such as an external locus of control and strong needs of affiliation (Landy et al., 1983).

(d) Intended response

In this model, the desire to respond is the major input to the next part of the feedback process, i.e. the recipient's intended response.

The self as a source of feedback may enhance the intended response of the individual, since the more control that the job performer has over his/her goals, the better his/her performance will be (Landy et al., 1983).

An important message factor is goal difficulty. Generally, more difficult goals lead to better job performance (Landy et al., 1983).

In terms of individual characteristics that play a role in intended response, it could be inferred that individuals with a higher level of intrinsic motivation would be expected to intend to respond at a higher level than those individuals motivated by factors other than the task itself (Landy et al., 1983).

- Ashford & Cummings model

The core of this feedback model is built on the principle that organisations have to move away from the view that feedback is only an organisational tool that can be used to motivate, direct and enhance the job performance of individuals. Feedback should be regarded as a valuable resource for the individual work performer. Feedback has to shift from being something that is received passively to something sought by the individual for several purposes, such as error correction, self-evaluation, the ability to control his/her environment (including the work environment) and to reduce uncertainty (Landy et al., 1983).

The model proposed by Ashford and Cummings is depicted in Figure 19:

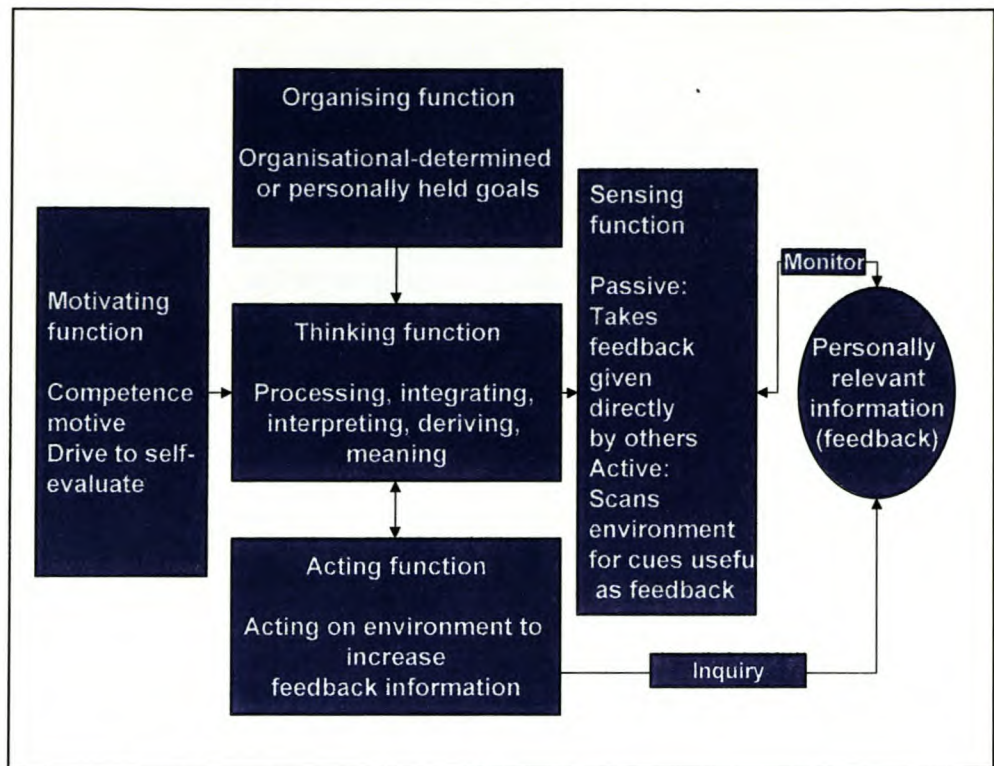


Figure 19: Ashford et al. model

(Ashford et al., 1983, cited in Landy et al., 1983)

This model proposes that an individual is placed within an information environment where he/she receives two types of information, i.e. feedback and other information (Landy et al., 1983).

Four functions influence the central, cognitive or thinking function of an individual, namely the motivating function, the organising function, the sensing function and the acting function.

The motivating function is the basic source of energy for the system in that it creates the desire or need for performance and relevant feedback information. The more the individual has motives to seek feedback, the greater the degree will be to which he/she seeks feedback (Landy et al., 1983).

Organisationally determined and personally held goals serve an organising function. Effort arises from the motivating function and this effort has to be directed in order for it to be useful. Goals serve as direction for this effort (Landy et al., 1983).

Once the motivating and organising functions influence the thinking function, methods or strategies for attaining feedback have to be activated, i.e. the sensing and acting functions.

The sensing function monitors the environment and absorbs information. This function can be relatively passive and receive feedback information directed at the job performer. It can also be active and scan or search the environment for cues or information that may be useful as feedback. The sensing function is, therefore, an observation of the environment and does not activate inquiries about performance and other behaviour (Landy et al., 1983).

The purpose of the acting function is to increase the amount of feedback information available to the individual work performer. The individual directly asks relevant sources in the environment about the effectiveness of his/her job performance (Landy et al., 1983).

Feedback and goal setting

Ilgen et al. (1979) formulated a hypothesis that a relationship exists between feedback specificity and goal specificity. Figure 20 explains the relationship between the specificity of goals and feedback:

		GOALS	
		Specific	General
FEEDBACK	Specific	Feedback is easily understood and applied to future performance	Performance evaluation is difficult
	General	Feedback is interpreted in terms of the performer's frame of reference	Feedback is difficult to interpret and apply

Figure 20: Relationship between feedback and goal specificity
(Ilgen et al., 1979)

This figure illustrates the inadequacy of general feedback and general goals for the purpose of performance improvement. The

more specific the feedback, the better it can be utilised to improve future performance (Landy et al., 1983).

Negative feedback

Negative feedback is generally not accepted as well as positive feedback and may lead to hostility, ego-defensiveness and rationalisation (Landy et al., 1983).

According to Ilgen et al. (1979) it is of critical importance that certain issues are taken into consideration when giving negative feedback, such as:

- More sessions would permit fewer criticisms per session;
- Specific examples need to be presented in order to justify the criticisms to the recipient;
- Negative feedback should be paired with a plan to improve the performance problem;
- The source should not be too removed from the recipient.

Non-verbal feedback

Non-verbal feedback includes body language and other cues that can be used to convey a message to the recipient of the feedback (Fear et al., 1990).

When giving feedback to an individual, there are various factors that should be kept in mind with regard to non-verbal signs and signals. The most important aspects include appearance, gestures, posture, eye contact, facial expression and voice. Appearance refers to the “message” that the person portrays with his/her image, which includes aspects like clothing and jewellery. Gestures include emotion expressed with the person’s hands, e.g. clenched hands may indicate tension and nervousness, a curled fist may symbolise anger, etc. Posture can also convey a non-verbal message. If, for instance, a person keeps shifting positions, it may be interpreted as impatience or a lack of interest. Similarly, if the person leans towards

the other person, it may indicate interest, whilst pushing away may symbolise a distance that is maintained. Eye contact and facial expressions may also play a role when feedback is given. An individual's voice may also affect the feedback message. Therefore, the intonation, volume and rate of speech have to be monitored when giving feedback to someone (Fear et al., 1990).

The rewarding of job performance

Reward is an important aspect when focusing on sustaining the individual's job performance. Since each individual may be motivated by something else, an effective performance management system has to be flexible enough to incorporate individual needs (Hartle, 1997).

The purpose of a well-designed reward system should be to reward the "right" kind of behaviour and the "right" kind of results, i.e. those that reinforce and enhance the vision, mission and strategies of the company (Hartle, 1997).

Types of rewards

Various rewards exist, since each individual is motivated and inspired by a different type of reward.

- **Financial recognition**

Various financial rewards can be utilised to reward excellent job performance.

Firstly, the most traditional and common approach to performance rewards is merit increases. The individual receives an increase based on his/her performance levels and achievements (Hartle, 1997).

Another more progressive approach to performance management, is the combination of the individual merit increase with a periodic incentive, that is based on individual and/or team results (Hartle, 1997).

A new trend in performance pay focuses on the rewarding of job holder competencies instead of job results only. The focus has thus shifted from a retrospective one to a prospective one (Hartle, 1997).

- Non-financial recognition

The power of non-financial rewards in motivation are often overlooked and undervalued.

There are various types of non-financial recognition that can be given to individuals. Praise is an informal way to recognise an individual's contribution or achievement, whilst special awards or prizes are a more formalised manner that can be used to reward a person's performance. Promotion is another way to recognise performance and may serve as a strong motivator of increased performance to some individuals (Hartle, 1997).

Critical elements in rewarding performance

Certain elements have to be adhered to, in order to ensure that job performance is rewarded correctly. These elements include:

- Clarity

Individuals should have clarity on the link between performance expectations and rewards as they can then recognise and appreciate their rewards for meeting different performance levels (Hartle, 1997).

- Standards

Individuals should realise that once performance standards are reached, relevant and appropriate rewards are given to recognise the performance (Hartle, 1997).

- Responsibility

It is of critical importance that individuals should feel that they have a responsibility towards the rewards that they will receive. Individuals should be informed of the fact that once they reach their performance standards, they will be consequently rewarded (Hartle, 1997).

- Individual needs and desires

Many managers make the mistake of believing that a reward that is valued by one individual will automatically also be valued by another individual. Individual needs and desires regarding performance rewards should, therefore, be recognised and incorporated when deciding on a specific reward (Hartle, 1997).

- Team commitment

An understanding of team contribution should also be reinforced among team members. They should not perceive success at the expense of team members, but rather in collaboration with them, in order to increase not only the overall success of the team but also the reward that each team member will receive if the team meets the performance expectations (Hartle, 1997).

3.5.3.2. Improving poor performance

This phase is “probably the most neglected area of the performance management cycle” (Hartle, 1997, p.72).

The improving of performance is an ongoing process of working towards the performance standards established in the planning phase. This phase involves strategies to ensure that the individual’s job performance is rectified and/or improved to ensure that expectations are met, standards are reached and goals are obtained (Cadwell, 1994; Hartle, 1997).

The following activities can be established as important in the improvement of individual job performance:

Coaching

Coaching can be defined as “a directive process by a manager to train and orient an employee to the realities of the workplace and to help the employee remove barriers to optimum work performance” (Minor, 1995, p.4).

This management activity involves working with an individual on a specific task or activity that forms part of his/her job in order to improve his/her knowledge, competence or skill. Coaching involves instruction, demonstration, dialog, practice, support and feedback on a continuous basis (Hartle, 1997).

According to Hartle (1997) the main elements of coaching are that:

- It is a learning process, not a teaching process;
- The individuals are responsible for the planning and achievement of their tasks, and are only supported, counselled and monitored by their managers throughout the process;
- Feedback should be specific, timely and focused to enable the individual to improve or continue current behaviour, thereby avoiding any punitive aspects during the official review of his/her job performance.

Counselling

Problem performance encompasses job performance that does not measure up to established performance standards of output or quality, and behaviour that is distracting or disruptive to the normal conduct of operations (Bittel & Newstrom, 1990).

Effective counselling is an important aspect of managing performance. This process is normally utilised when, for whatever reason, the individual's performance has not met expectations. The supervisor then takes a formal and planned approach in order to assist the individual in overcoming certain "performance obstacles" (Hartle, 1997).

Counselling can be defined as "a supportive process by a manager to help an employee define and work through personal problems or organisational changes that affect job performance" (Minor, 1995, p.4).

Accordingly, the objective of counselling is to help and assist an employee to overcome personal problems or organisational related problems that prevent him/her to perform according to the set standards.

Counselling should be characterised by the following elements (Hartle, 1997):

- The session(s) should be conducted timely, i.e. soon after the problem occurred;
- It should be planned in advance as to ensure that both parties have the opportunity to be well prepared;
- It should be a two-way process in which openness is encouraged;
- Positive elements of behaviour should also be emphasised and not only negative aspects thereof;
- Action plans should be agreed upon to ensure that both parties are committed to bringing about performance improvements.

Counselling has a number of purposes. Firstly, counselling assists the individual to perform his/her job more efficiently and effectively through discussing the performance standards required for the position. Counselling also provides the individual with a clear picture of how he/she is doing, with emphasis on weaknesses, strengths and progress towards performance standards. Thirdly, performance improvement action plans to better utilise the individual's strengths are also set during counselling interviews. Another important purpose of the counselling sessions is to build strong, personal relationships between the superior and the subordinate in which both are committed to discussing the job, how it is being done, what improvement is possible and also how performance standards can be obtained. Lastly, an important purpose is to reduce the individual's anxiety, tension and uncertainty which may exist regarding the job

and the individual's job performance (Planty & Efferson, 1962, cited in Whisler & Harper, 1962).

3.5.4. Appraising performance

This phase in the performance management process refers to the reviewing of performance. It involves the measurement of performance by means of various methods in order to give the individual an objective, fair and unbiased appraisal. Once the performance has been measured, feedback is given during a performance review. After the appraisal, the whole performance management process starts again, i.e. planning will be done based on the results of the appraisal, and performance will be managed in order to sustain the good performance and to improve the poor performance.

Employees are one of the major stakeholders in every organisation and every department. Employees give the best part of their lives to these institutions. There is thus an obligation towards them to inform them as to how they are performing. Unlike technology and capital, the human resource has interests and expectations that are manifested in behaviour that impacts on job performance. Similarly, organisations have to appraise the performance of all its resources to ensure high productivity, efficiency and profitability. The appraisal / reviewing of job performance is, therefore, a function that cannot be neglected (Kermally, 1997).

Job performance measurement involves "the methods or procedures that provide quantitative indices of the extent to which employees demonstrate certain work behaviours and of the results of those behaviours" (Landy et al., 1983, p.7).

This performance measurement or assessment refers to a formal evaluation of an employee's contribution to the organisation and is usually conducted on a yearly basis (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997).

The difficulty of accurately measuring job performance, the "criterion problem" as it has been labelled, has been a concern of applied psychologists for over sixty years. The importance of finding an accurate measurement of job

performance cannot be over-emphasised as it can play a major role in improving productivity and efficiency in organisations (Landy et al., 1983).

3.5.4.1. Purposes of performance measurement

Information on job performance in organisations may be gathered for various purposes. The *first* purpose of performance measurement pertains to management decisions, i.e. promotions, lateral transfers, demotion and retention decisions and merit compensation decisions. In order to motivate continued good performance, rewards are allocated for individual and group performance on both an informal and formal basis (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997; Landy et al., 1983).

The *second* purpose includes guidance and counselling, i.e. supervisory feedback to subordinates regarding their strengths and weaknesses, career planning, preparation and feedback on job performance - with the aim of improving work satisfaction and work motivation - and the setting of challenging goals in co-ordination with the subordinates (Cadwell, 1994; Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997; Kermally, 1997; Landy et al., 1983).

Thirdly, performance measurement can be utilised for research purposes, i.e. validation of selection procedures, evaluation of training programmes and the evaluation of motivation orientated and satisfaction orientated interventions, such as job enrichment programmes and compensation plans (Landy et al., 1983).

In the fourth instance can performance measurement also be regarded as a form of communication in that the individual is informed of how well he/she is doing at work. This communication with the individual can serve as a motivational vehicle if he/she is aware of whether his/her performance is perceived as being above average, average or whether certain skills require improvement (Kermally, 1997).

The *fifth* purpose of performance measurements is that it can help to facilitate the recruitment, selection and training of employees. With regard to recruitment, the performance measurements can be used as a “realistic job preview” to inform job applicants of the type of work and the levels of performance they would be expected to perform at as employees. This information presented to the employee gives the individual the opportunity to decide whether the organisation’s expectations are in line with his/her own. In terms of selection, tools such as psychometric tests and interviews are validated against employee performance in order for management to be able to predict job performance of new recruits as accurately as possible. In terms of training, performance measurements are utilised to assess the need for training and to evaluate the effectiveness of the training (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997).

Lastly, performance measurement can be utilised to ensure congruence between the individual’s expectations and the organisation’s goals, whilst synchronising individual objectives with the objectives of the department, division or organisation (Kermally, 1997).

3.5.4.2. Classification of performance measurements

Performance measurements can be classified according to three dimensions, namely time span covered by the measurement, the specificity of the measurement and the closeness of the measurement to organisational goals (Smith, 1976, cited in Landy et al., 1983).

The time span refers to the time period between the performance and the actual performance measurement. This time period can vary from the immediate to a time delay of a few hours up to many years (Smith, 1976, cited in Landy et al., 1983).

With regard to specificity-generality, the performance measurement may refer to a specific aspect of the individual’s job performance or

may be an indicator of overall performance (Smith, 1976, cited in Landy et al., 1983).

The closeness to organisational goals in Smith's classification framework is that it consists of three levels, i.e. behaviours, results and organisational effectiveness. The level of behaviour refers to the direct observation of the individual's work behaviour. The level of results refers to a measure of the effectiveness of overall work behaviour of an individual. The organisational effectiveness level refers to the effectiveness of the organisation with regard to its goals (Smith, 1976, cited in Landy et al., 1983).

3.5.4.3. Measures of job performance

There are many different measures of job performance. At the simplest levels, there are two categories of measures, i.e. judgmental and non-judgmental measures (Landy et al., 1983).

Non-judgmental measures include measures that do not require abstraction or synthesis by the individual collecting the measures, e.g. production output, absence, accidents, grievances and turnover, whereas judgmental measures do require abstraction or synthesis, e.g. ranking, rating scales, checklists and paired comparisons (Landy et al., 1983).

Non-judgmental measures of job performance

The non-judgmental measures of job performance include measures of output and occupational measures of performance, as well as other definitions of efficiency such as absenteeism, turnover, grievances and accidents. These non-judgmental measures are criterion-referenced measures (Landy et al., 1983).

Criterion-referenced measures

These measures evaluate or describe job performance in terms of a set standard, or standards, of performance.

- Measures of output

Two measures exist to collect indices of output. Both measures are independent of one another and critical for the utilisation of output data for human resources research and administration purposes (Landy et al., 1983).

The optimisation parameter measures performance as a deviation from the optimal performance levels rather than a deviation from the maximum levels. The assumption that “more is better” is thus not true in all cases, since an individual might burn out if he/she works too hard or too fast on a continual basis (Landy et al., 1983).

The absolute-comparative parameter differentiates between absolute and comparative indices of performance. Absolute indices have no standard as a frame of reference. Output can, therefore, be measured in absolute terms such as number per unit time, time per unit, number of rejected units, etc. On the other hand, comparative indices have a standard against which the output is measured, i.e. percentage of standard time, percentage of standard output, percentage of mean shift performance, etc. (Landy et al., 1983).

- Occupational measures of performance

Objective measures of performance can also be established for each specific occupation. These may include measures like number of sales for sales representatives, the number of arrests made by police officers, the number of contracts obtained by attorneys, etc. (Landy et al., 1983).

These occupational measures should be set by each specific occupation according to criteria that are regarded as contributing to effective job performance.

- Absenteeism

“Who could argue with a straight face that an absent employee was a productive one? It seems intuitively obvious that one of the preconditions for good performance is attendance. Thus, it is

understandable that a popular dependent variable or criterion in organisational research is absenteeism." (Landy et al., 1983, p.28.)

Absenteeism thus has to be monitored as a measure of performance. There are two different types of measures with regard to absenteeism, i.e. organisational and individual measures. The organisational perspective considers absenteeism as being a cost to the organisation / company / department / division. This perspective does not take the reason for absence into consideration, but only looks at the fact of absence.

The individual perspective differs significantly from the organisational perspective. The commonly used measures of absenteeism at the individual level include frequency (the number of periods of absence) and duration or severity (the average or total number of days absent) (Landy et al., 1983).

Other measures that have been used include: the frequency of short absences, time lost (number of days lost in a week regardless of any reason except leave), "blue Monday" (occurrence of an one day absence on a Monday) and "worst day" (absence on the week's "worst day") (Nicholson & Sheppard, 1971, cited in Landy et al., 1983).

- Turnover

Turnover is, like absenteeism, a measurable index that is commonly used to represent job performance (Campbell, et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996).

Turnover is costly since it is expensive to recruit, select and train individuals to take the place of those individuals who have left.

"Turnover rate is generally defined as the ratio of quits per unit time to the average number of individuals in the work force for the time period" (Landy et al., 1983, p.35).

Involuntary turnover rates can, therefore, also be used as an indicator of job performance, as these figures will include those

employees that were dismissed due to poor job performance (Landy et al., 1983).

- **Grievances**

A grievance is an employee's complaint about a specific aspect or procedure of the administration and/or management of human resources (Landy et al., 1983).

As such, grievances are considered either a measure of the effectiveness of the supervisor or of the subordinate.

As a supervisory job performance index, it represents the capacity of the supervisor to maintain harmonious relationships with his/her subordinates or to settle complaints at an informal level. Turner (1960, cited in Landy et al., 1983, p.39) defined grievance rate as "a characteristic of a supervisor".

As a job performance index of the subordinate, it represents a measure of the unwillingness of the subordinate to listen to reason, the tendency to complain too much as well as other negative behaviours (Landy et al., 1983).

Grievances can, therefore, be utilised as a measure of job performance, provided that good records of all grievances are kept (Landy et al., 1983).

- **Accidents**

Accident data can also be used as indicators of an individual's job performance (Campbell et al., 1993, cited in Murphy, 1996; Landy et al., 1983).

If a worker is involved in accidents on a continual basis, it can be an indication of poor job performance on the individual's behalf and should be addressed accordingly.

Judgmental measures of job performance

Judgmental measures are the most frequently used performance management techniques.

Criterion-referenced and norm-referenced measures are used as judgmental measures.

Criterion-referenced measures

These measures describe or evaluate job performance in terms of performance standards.

- Graphic rating scale

Graphic rating scales are a popular format for appraising the job performance of employees because of its obvious advantages - simplicity and ease of handling (Lopez, 1968; Paterson, cited in Whisler et al., 1962).

These scales show the individual's strengths and weaknesses on specific performance dimensions and on the overall performance ratings (Kermally, 1997).

A variety of graphic scales currently exist. These scales vary along several factors, i.e. the degree to which the meaning of the response categories is defined, the degree to which the rater is able to convey his/her intended rating response and the degree to which the job performance dimension is defined for the rater (Landy et al., 1983).

The meaningfulness of the response categories is addressed through the process of "anchoring". Anchors are attempts to "convey meaning about the various points on the rating scale" (Landy et al., 1983, p.58).

General dissatisfaction with these graphic rating scales due to factors such as external inconsistency, stereotyping, halo errors, central tendency, etc. has led to the development of other types of criterion-referenced judgmental measures (Steinmetz & Todd, 1992).

- Behaviourally anchored rating scales (BARS)

These behaviourally anchored rating scales were aimed at replacing the simple numerical and adjectival anchors with descriptions of

actual job behaviours that reflected varying levels of effectiveness on the performance dimension (Landy et al., 1983).

For each job dimension there are several anchors which are specific statements of actual job performance (Bernardin et al., 1984; Kermally, 1997).

The behavioural anchors are worded in a "could be expected to" format. The rater is, therefore, not asked to rate the individual on behaviour that was observed, but rather on predicted or inferred behaviour based on the rater's past observations of the ratee's job performance (Kermally, 1997; Landy et al., 1983; Olson, 1981).

Problems have occurred with regard to BARS. Firstly, it is difficult to justify the ratings as the appraisal is based on expectations and not on observed past behaviour. Secondly, raters have objections regarding the order of the behavioural anchors on a given scale (Landy et al., 1983).

- Mixed standard scales (MSS)

Blanz and Ghiselli (1972, cited in Landy et al., 1983) proposed the mixed standard scale. This format consists of three behavioural examples per performance dimension. One of the three examples describes above average performance on the performance dimension, one describes average performance and one describes below average performance (Bernardin et al., 1984; Landy et al., 1983).

The behavioural examples are arranged randomly and the performance dimensions are not identified (Landy et al., 1983).

A rater's score on each performance dimension is calculated on the basis of rater responses to the three items comprising the specific performance dimension (Landy et al., 1983).

- Forced-choice rating scales (FC)

In the forced-choice technique, the rater is presented with a number of sets of examples of job performance and is required to judge

which of the several alternative statements is most and least descriptive of an individual's job performance. This technique, therefore, "forces" the rater to discriminate on the basis of concrete aspects of the subordinate's work behaviour, rather than to rely on the individual's total worth in terms of job performance (Bernardin et al., 1984; Landy et al., 1983; Lopez, 1968; Olson, 1981; Rue & Byars, 1990).

For each behavioural example, the scaling procedure results in a measure of the preference of the behaviour and in a measure of whether good job performers are more, or less, likely to display the behaviour than poor job performers (Landy et al., 1983).

Rater resistance seems to be a problem that is related with the forced choice rating scales. Resistance occurs either when raters are to choose from unfavourable examples or if raters are to select the most and least descriptive item from either all favourable, all unfavourable or a mixture of favourable and unfavourable items (Landy et al., 1983; Rue et al., 1990).

- Other checklists

A general format for checklists is a listing of relatively specific items that describe possible work behaviours or individual characteristics (Landy et al., 1983).

The rater then either has to make a response to each example or has to choose examples most descriptive of the ratee (Landy et al., 1983).

Norm-referenced measures

These measures compare the job performance of an individual with the job performance of another individual or group of individuals.

- Paired comparisons

Another approach that can be utilised to measure an individual's job performance is that of paired comparisons.

Paired comparisons are based on the following formula (Bernardin et al., 1984, p.110):

$$[N(N - 1)]/2 = \text{number of pairs}$$

(N refers to the number of subordinates to be rated by the supervisor).

Every possible pair of individuals in the group is compared with one another. The rater is to select the better job performer of each pair, either in terms of general job performance or in terms of a specific job performance dimension. A rank order can then be obtained by calculating the number of times that each individual was selected as being the better of a pair (Landy et al., 1983; Lawshe, Kephart & McCormick, 1962, cited in Whisler et al., 1962; Lopez, 1968; Olson, 1981).

- Ranking

Ranking is a method that is normally utilised in a group with a smaller number of individuals. The rater is merely asked to place the individuals in order of merit (Landy et al., 1983; Lopez, 1968).

Alternative ranking is another approach that can be followed. This method entails that the extreme performers are removed from the group, as ranking is most difficult among individuals whose performance is average and similar to one another. Alternative ranking thus reduces the complexity of the ranking process (Guion, 1965, cited in Bernardin, 1984; Landy et al., 1983; Lopez, 1968; Rue et al., 1990).

- Forced distribution method

This method entails that employees are ordered, according to perceived merit, into a bell-shaped normal frequency distribution. The one end of the distribution represents high quality performance and the other end represents poor job performance. The supervisor is then required to allocate his/her subordinates to the various brackets of a five-point scale (Bernardin, 1984; Lopez, 1968; Rue et al., 1990).

A small portion (approximately 10%) of his/her subordinates must be allocated to the high end of the scale, 20% of the employees to the next highest bracket, 40% in the middle, 20% to the next lowest bracket and 10% to the lowest bracket (Bernardin, 1984; Lopez, 1968; Tiffin, 1962, cited in Whisler et al., 1962).

The major advantage of this method lies in the fact that the forced distribution eliminates errors of leniency and central tendency and facilitates inter-group comparisons (Lopez, 1968).

Problems related with judgmental measures of job performance

Various difficulties are experienced with regard to these judgmental measures of job performance. Firstly, a rater is involved in evaluating the individual's job performance. This person can be affected to differing degrees by internal capacities and limitations as well as external forces. These differences can be disruptive to both administrative and research purposes, since the quality of the data that represents job performance, is influenced (Landy et al., 1983).

Another problem related to the judgmental measurement of performance is that a rater sometimes may have a central tendency, in other words to give a middle rating, e.g. three out of five (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997; Kermally, 1997).

A tendency to stereotype is another problem experienced with this type of measurement, in that a conclusion is drawn regarding the individual's performance based on perceptions of the rater (Kermally, 1997).

The "halo effect" can also play a role in the measurement the job performance of individuals. This effect entails that the rating is based on an overall impression of an individual; the rating is, therefore, not done objectively (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997; Kermally, 1997; Taylor & Hastman, 1962, cited in Whisler et al., 1962).

The last major difficulty experienced with the judgmental measures is that the rater may tend to be too lenient. The motivation behind such leniency is that the rater may feel that a high rating of his/her subordinates would reflect well on his/her own competence (Heneman et al., 1997, cited in Lewin et al., 1997; Kermally, 1997; Taylor et al., 1962, cited in Whisler et al., 1962).

3.5.4.4. Progress reviews

Another method that can be utilised to appraise performance, is ongoing performance reviews. These reviews are essential in that the individual is monitored on a regular and routine basis to ensure that his/her performance is up to standard and contributes to the success of the business (Hartle, 1997).

The frequency of these progress reviews may differ from one position to the next – for some jobs a discussion on a three monthly basis may be adequate, whilst for short cycle jobs or when a person is new or in a new position, weekly or even daily feedback may be applicable (Hartle, 1997).

The purposes of these reviews are to share information, to gather information and also to agree on actions to keep the individual's progress on track (Hartle, 1997).

3.5.4.5. Self-evaluation

This type of evaluation is another method that can be used for the purposes of a performance review / appraisal. The evaluation of job performance is not a management function alone, but also involves the individual whose performance is at stake. This evaluation of job performance, therefore, includes self-evaluation done by the individual (Cadwell, 1994; Landy & Farr, 1983; Swan, 1991, cited in Marumo, 1997).

Self-analysis “removes the secrecy from management reviews” (Hall, 1940, cited in Whisler et al., 1962, p.351). The objectives of the individual's self-evaluation are to encourage the subordinate to

undertake preparations for an appraisal interview and also to think carefully about issues influencing his/her job performance. The individual job holder is a key stakeholder in performance management and should be encouraged to recognise the benefits of actively managing and taking responsibility for his/her own performance (Hartle, 1997; Marumo, 1997).

The self-appraisal process has several advantages. Firstly, it provides the individual with knowledge as to what is expected of him/her and the factors of measurement that are to be utilised during the appraisal process (Hall, 1940, cited in Whisler et al., 1962).

In addition, this self-monitoring by the individual also provides the supervisor with an additional source of input when measuring the individual's job performance (Marumo, 1997).

Furthermore, individuals have the opportunity to give their opinions of their own job performance and are also allowed to indicate work preferences during such an exercise (Hall, 1940, cited in Whisler et al., 1962).

3.6. CONCLUSION

This Chapter provided an overview of the literature survey pertaining to the other major construct in this study, i.e. *job performance*.

The conclusion can be drawn that job performance is a function of ability and motivation (effort), that determines the way in which a job or task is done by an individual, a group or an organisation.

Chapter 4 will accordingly give an overview of the research methodology that was followed during the course of the empirical research.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The objective of the study was to investigate whether an individual who manages his/her career will necessarily perform better at his/her job.

The research attempted to confirm or reject the major hypothesis of the study, namely that a statistically significant relationship exists between career self-management and job performance, as well as to confirm or reject the sub-hypotheses in respect of the other independent variables on job performance. Conclusions on the statistical significance of the relationship between career self-management and job performance could thus be reached.

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the research methodology that was followed in order to meet the objectives of the study, to provide an answer to the research question and to confirm or reject the major hypothesis as well as the sub-hypotheses.

This chapter consists of the following sub-sections: the background to the study; the purpose of the study; the sampling process; the research procedure; the measuring instruments that were utilised to obtain the data; the response rate obtained from the sample; the sample characteristics as well as the statistical methods used for the processing of the statistical data.

4.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Raymond A. Noe of the University of Minnesota in the USA conducted a similar study during the early 1990's, when he investigated the statistical significance of the relationship between career management and job performance. Only limited support for the relationship between career management and employees' job performance was however found. The finding was nevertheless controversial because it was contrary to conventional wisdom in the career development literature (Dweck, 1986; Hall, 1986; London et al., 1987).

It was emphasised by Noe that his study had certain limitations, which might have affected the results obtained. These limitations included, inter alia, the following:

Firstly, the sample he used for his study consisted of 51 individuals. This *sample size* was, according to him, too small to allow for generalisations of the results and the detection of any significant relationships (Noe, 1996).

Another limitation of his study included the fact that the sample was taken from *one organisation* and thus one industry only. This limitation makes it difficult to generalise the results and to apply the findings to other organisations and industries as well (Noe, 1996).

Noe also mentioned that the majority of individuals in his sample were employed in jobs that required high levels of interests and skills in *realistic* and *investigative* activities. He reasoned that the career management process might have a stronger influence on the job performance of individuals in occupations requiring enterprising, conventional and social interests and skills. Noe, therefore, emphasised the necessity for a second study to be conducted in a different type of organisation and amongst different types of individuals in order to either confirm or reject the robustness of his results (Noe, 1996).

4.3. PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

Noe's results, along with the fact that they were, according to him, influenced by the limitations present in his research, served as the point of departure for the empirical phase of this study.

Noe stated that his study represented an *initial attempt* to investigate the relationship between the career management process and performance and appealed to researchers to re-investigate the statistical significance of the relationship between the two constructs (Noe, 1996). The purpose of this study was therefore to replicate Noe's study and thereby place his results and findings into perspective.

The assumption made for the purpose of this study was that Noe's results were significantly influenced by the factors pertaining to the characteristics of the sample he used. The major hypothesis of this study was, therefore, that a statistically significant relationship exists between the career self-management and job

performance of individuals. The alternative hypothesis put it that Noe's findings were not significantly influenced by the sample characteristics and were indeed correct. The alternative hypothesis of this study was, therefore, that no statistically significant relationship exists between the two mentioned constructs.

4.4. POPULATION

The results of any research project are only as trustworthy as the quality of the population, or how representative the sample is of the population.

A population was selected with the aim of representing the career management behaviour and the corresponding job performance of as many different types of individuals as possible, which would allow for generalisations across industries and organisations. The population in this study thus consisted of managerial, technical-professional and clerical employees from five diverse industries, namely the banking, manufacturing, mining, health care and property industries. These industries were selected for the reason that they, viewed generally, represent heterogeneous personality types and are thus representative of all types of individuals.

A sample was then selected from the population group. According to Hoinville, Jowell & Associates (1978, p.57) a sample is a "small-scale representation – a kind of miniature mode – of the population from which it was selected. Because it includes merely a part, not all, of the parent population, it can never be an exact replica of that population".

For sampling purposes a large organisation was selected in each of the industries to represent that specific industry. The property market differs from the other industries in that it consists of a number of smaller companies. Consequently, nine of these smaller companies were selected on a systematic basis to represent the property industry.

Because of the heterogeneity and diversity of this sample, results can more easily be applied to other organisations and industries. The particular compilation of the sample also allowed for the majority of Holland's personality types to be included. The banking industry may typically employ individuals who possess high levels of interests and skills in conventional activities, whereas a large number of social personality types may be detected in the health care industry. Similarly, the

individuals who display enterprising characteristics may feel comfortable in the property industry and realistic personality types may be common to both the manufacturing and mining industries (Greenhaus et al., 1994).

A simple systematic sampling method was used to select the individuals from the sample frame. The simple systematic sampling method is one in which each sample element has a known and equal probability of selection and each possible sample of n elements has a known and equal probability of being the sample actually selected.

Printed lists were obtained from each selected organisation / company in each industry, comprising the names of all individuals employed in clerical, technical-professional and managerial capacities. Each printed list started from number one and every employee was allocated a number in the order that his/her name appeared on the respective printout. Depending on the total number of employee names on each printed list, every x individual was systematically selected, within each industry, to form a potential sample consisting of a total of 80 individuals per industry. The total potential sample of this research study thus included 400 individuals from five different industries in South Africa.

Due to questionnaires that had either not been returned or that were not completed properly, the actual sample included 307 individuals. Of this sample, the mining industry was represented by 62 individuals, the manufacturing industry by 60 individuals, the banking industry by 61 individuals, the health care industry by 65 individuals and the property industry by 59 individuals.

4.5. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Two measuring instruments were used during the course of this research study, i.e. the Career Management Questionnaire and the Job Performance Questionnaire.

4.5.1. Career Management Questionnaire

The Career Management Questionnaire (Refer to Appendix A) consists of the following three sub-sections:

- *Section A*, which contains questions on the biographical information of individuals;

- *Section B*, the Career Exploration Survey (CES), which measures career exploration activities of individuals, and the Focus scale of the CES, which measures the career goals that individuals have set for themselves; and
- *Section C*, the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory, which measures career strategies, utilised by individuals in order to promote and manage their careers more effectively.

This questionnaire was distributed by fieldworkers to the samples in the various industries. A total of 400 individuals across the various industries received this questionnaire.

4.5.1.1. Covering Letter

A covering letter was attached to the front of the questionnaire (Refer to Appendix B). This covering letter is important, in that it prepares the readers for the questionnaire and also increases the probability of honest and accurate reactions from the respondents.

The content of the letter consisted of the following, namely the purpose of the questionnaire, general instructions for the completion thereof (i.e. all three sections have to be completed, the questions can be answered by making a cross over the option of choice, etc.) and a guarantee of complete confidentiality.

4.5.1.2. Biographical Data

The first section of this questionnaire had the objective of obtaining biographical information from the respondents. Biographical data pertains to important sub-factors influencing the relationship between career self-management and job performance. It was, therefore, important that a section of this nature be included in this questionnaire.

The biographical information in this questionnaire covered the following constructs: age, gender, population group, position in the current organisation, years employed in the current organisation, years' experience in the current job, total years' working experience and qualifications.

4.5.1.3. Career Exploration Survey (CES)

The Career Exploration Survey, developed by Stumpf et al. (1983), is an instrument utilised to measure two major career management functions:

Career exploration, i.e. the extent to which participants engage in exploratory behaviour, how the individual reacts to the exploration process and also the beliefs that individuals have pertaining to career exploration.

Career goal setting, i.e. the degree to which the individual is certain of his/her career goals.

Dimensions of the CES:

The Career Exploration Survey consists of 62 items that are grouped according to sixteen dimensions of career exploration activities. These sixteen dimensions cover the three major aspects of career exploration, namely the exploration process, reactions to exploration and beliefs pertaining to career exploration.

For the purposes of this study, however, only fifteen of the original sixteen dimensions were measured, as one of the original dimensions, i.e. certainty of career exploration outcome, is applicable to students / graduates only.

Seven dimensions of the CES measure the exploration process, i.e. environmental exploration, self-exploration, intended-systematic exploration, frequency, amount of information, number of occupations considered and focus.

Environmental Exploration

This type of exploration is conducted by the individual in the business environment and includes exploration pertaining to aspects such as the labour market, other job opportunities, areas of career interest, etc.

Self-Exploration

This dimension refers to the individual's efforts to investigate / explore himself/herself and thereby to enhance his/her self-awareness. This self-exploration includes the exploration of various internal qualities such as abilities, interests, personality traits, values, strengths, weaknesses, etc.

Intended-Systematic Exploration

Intended-systematic exploration refers to intended efforts of an individual to experiment with and explore different career activities and work roles in his/her present workplace / working environment.

Frequency

The frequency dimension records the number of times that career exploration was carried out in a given time period.

Amount of Information

This dimension refers to the volume of information that the individual has obtained on career related issues.

Number of Occupations considered

The number of occupations considered by the individual is another dimension of the exploration process. The more occupational areas considered by the individual, the greater the extent of his/her exploration and thus the more informed he/she would be.

Focus

The Focus scale of the CES is used to measure the individual's certainty with regard to his/her career goals.

The CES also measures the individual's reactions to career exploration. The dimensions applicable to this aspect of career exploration are *satisfaction with information*, *explorational stress* and *decisional stress*.

Satisfaction with Information

This dimension measures how comfortable the individual is with regard to the information that he/she has obtained concerning career related issues.

Explorational Stress

Explorational stress is an indicator of the level of stress that the individual experiences when conducting career exploration.

Decisional Stress

This dimension measures the level of stress that the individual experiences when making a career related decision.

Lastly, this instrument also measures beliefs about career exploration. The dimensions in this questionnaire pertaining to this aspect of career exploration include: *employment outlook*, *certainty of career exploration outcome*, *external search instrumentality*, *internal search instrumentality*, *method instrumentality* and the *importance of obtaining the preferred position*.

Employment Outlook

Employment outlook measures the individual's belief concerning the possibilities for employment in his/her preferred job, organisation and occupation.

External Search Instrumentality

This dimension refers to the individual's belief that external search activities (search activities *not* pertaining to individual qualities and attributes), such as obtaining information on the labour market, initiating conversations with friends and relatives about careers, etc., are critical in the realisation of career goals.

Internal Search Instrumentality

Internal search instrumentality refers to the individual's belief that these types of search activities are critical in the realisation of career goals. Internal search activities refer to activities that the individual

conducts to learn more about his/her own qualities and attributes e.g. self-assessment and focusing thoughts on self.

Method Instrumentality

The method instrumentality dimension refers to the individual's belief that the method(s) that was followed during the course of the career search will enhance the probability of obtaining career goals.

Importance of obtaining Preferred Position

This dimension measures the importance to the individual of obtaining a specific position, i.e. a preferred occupation, job, organisation, etc.

Development of the CES:

The development of this Career Exploration Survey included four research studies to eventually establish an instrument that reliably and validly measures the dimensions of the career exploration process.

The *first* study involved the generation of items to measure the dimensions, an analysis of the dimension means, standard deviations, intercorrelations and internal consistency estimates of reliability (Stumpf et al., 1983).

The *second* study assessed the validity of the Career Exploration Survey by comparing self-report data to the known behaviours of subjects at two points in time and across two groups of subjects. According to Stumpf et al. (1983, pp.202-205), the results obtained from the statistical analysis included the following:

- Coefficient alphas were computed for each CES dimension and all were 0.67 or above; 85% were 0.75 or above;
- 59% of the construct career exploration could be explained by means of the items in the questionnaire;
- *twelve* factors were extracted from the questionnaire.

The *third* study had the purpose of examining the dimensionality of the CES for an independent sample of students, whose career

exploration stage differed from the previous samples used in the first and second study. The factor analysis of the CES items for this sample resulted in a rotated factor matrix similar to that in the previous study (Stumpf et al., 1983).

The *fourth* and last study addressed the correlates of various CES dimensions, based on considerations of social desirability bias, gender bias, and past research, suggesting variables that should meaningfully relate to exploratory behaviours, reactions to exploration and beliefs regarding future exploration (Stumpf et al., 1983).

The validity and reliability of the CES was confirmed by means of the four studies.

Utilisation of and research on the CES:

According to Stumpf et al. (1983) additional research had to be conducted on the CES, as the evidence for the validity of the instrument was gathered from a student sample. Further research was regarded as necessary to establish the extent to which the constructs can be generalised to include other populations and other settings.

Blustein (1988) accordingly conducted further research on the measuring instrument and, as a result, suggested minor modifications to the scale in order to adapt its content to *adolescents*. Specifically, he suggested that (a) four new items be added to the original five-item self-exploration scale in order to provide a more complete assessment of the adolescent's self-exploratory activities; (b) one additional item be added to each of the two stress scales assessing the exploration of or the deciding on an academic major and (c) a new four-item sub-scale measuring career decision making instrumentality be introduced.

This new suggested version of the CES was administered to a sample consisting of 9th and 12th graders ($N = 170$). This was followed by an interview with small groups of the sample ($N = 30$) in

order to determine the adequacy of the item content as well as the response format. Thereafter an item analysis was conducted on the responses of the sample. The results of these procedures led to the decision to delete several items from the scale, due to a lack of item reliability and validity, content redundancy or culture inadequacy (Taveira, Silva, Rodríguez & Maia, 1998).

The adapted version of the CES, which is suitable for adolescents, included 53 items, representing the following fifteen dimensions: Employment outlook, Certainty of career exploration outcomes, External instrumentality, Internal instrumentality, Method instrumentality, Decisional instrumentality, Importance of preferred position, Environmental exploration, Self-exploration, Amount of information, Number of occupations considered, Intended-systematic exploration, Satisfaction with information, Explorational stress and Decisional stress (Taveira et al., 1998).

The CES has been utilised in a number of research studies to measure the career exploration activities of individuals:

- Stumpf and Hartman (1984) investigated the relationship between individual exploration and organisational commitment / withdrawal. For the purposes of this study, two scales of the CES, developed by Stumpf et al. (1983), were used, i.e. Environmental exploration and Amount of information;
- Savickas (1984) researched various instruments to be used for the measurement of the variable *career maturity*. The original version of the CES (the version developed by Stumpf et al., 1983) was recommended by Savickas to measure one of the response variables of career maturity, namely career exploration;
- Stumpf and Lockhart (1987) conducted research on career exploration. The CES, as developed by Stumpf et al. (1983), was used to measure the career exploration behaviour of the individuals;

- Noe and Steffy (1987) studied the influence of individual characteristics and assessment centre evaluation on career exploration behaviour and job involvement. The original CES (developed by Stumpf et al., 1983) was used as the basis for research of exploratory behaviour, although it was adapted in this study to measure the exploratory behaviours associated with the career transition between the position of teacher, counsellor or assistant principal to that of school principal, the target job;
- Blustein investigated the relationship between motivational processes and career exploration (Blustein, 1988). Two scales from the adapted version of the CES were used, i.e. the environmental exploration scale and the self-exploration scale. Additionally, three scales from the original version of the CES (Stumpf et al., 1983) were used, i.e. the external search instrumentality, the internal search instrumentality and the career decision-making instrumentality scales;
- Blustein and Phillips conducted a study that sought to identify individual and contextual factors which might contribute to exploratory activity in late adolescence. The revised version of the exploratory stress scale and the decisional stress scale from the CES were utilised to measure the exploratory activity (Blustein et al., 1988);
- Blustein studied the role of career exploration in the career decision making of college students. In order to measure the career exploration behaviour of individuals, selected scales from the CES were either used in the original format or in the adapted format (Stumpf et al., 1983; Blustein, 1989);
- Blustein, Devenis and Kidney researched the relationship between the identity formation process and career development. In order to measure the exploratory activities, the modified versions of the environmental exploration scale and the self-exploration scales from the CES were used (Blustein, 1988);

- Noe (1996) investigated the relationship between career management and employee development and performance. The original version of the CES (Stumpf et al., 1983) was utilised to measure the career exploration and career goal setting components of the variable career management;
- Taveira et al. (1998) researched the effect of individual characteristics (gender, age, and school grade) on career exploration dimensions. These career exploration dimensions were measured by means of the adapted version of the CES (Blustein, 1988), which was specifically developed for adolescents.

Scoring of the CES:

Items 1 to 41 in the questionnaire are measured on a five-point scale, whilst items 42 to 47 are measured on a seven-point scale.

A low score on each of the dimensions indicates that little or no career exploration was carried out, whilst a high score represents extensive career exploration activities conducted by the individual.

The individual's total score on this section of the CES is indicative of the degree of career exploration conducted - the higher the total score, the more extensive the career exploration.

Uses of the CES:

"An instrument or measure does not have validity; it is the inference made from the measure that is valid to varying degrees" (Guion, 1980, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983, p.217).

Various valid inferences can be made from this instrument, such as:

The CES allows for *information to be obtained on the various possible outcomes of career exploration.*

These outcomes include both proximal outcomes, such as the acquisition of information, change in the objects of exploration, satisfaction with the acquired information and stress, and more distal

outcomes, such as the effectiveness of a career choice, job satisfaction and turnover (Stumpf et al., 1983).

Another use of the CES is to *provide information regarding the internal dynamics of the career exploration process*.

The CES can provide information on the nature and extent to which exploratory behaviour creates specific reactions to career exploration, which subsequently influence an individual's beliefs about the labour market and the instrumentality of future exploration (Stumpf et al., 1983).

The CES thus provides a more precise understanding of the exploration process which can be used in theory development and educational programs to facilitate *effective career decision making* (Stumpf et al., 1983).

The CES enables researchers to evaluate career development programmes on a number of criteria (Stumpf et al., 1983).

The instrument also allows the researcher to choose outcome measures most appropriate to the sample and the purpose and goals of the programme. If, for example, a student were undecided regarding his/her vocation, appropriate CES variables to utilise would be the Self-Exploration and Focus variables (Barak et al., 1975, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983). Similarly, if a programme has the objective of assisting individuals with finding employment, the Frequency and Environmental exploration variables would be suitable to utilise (Barron & Gilley, 1979, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983; Zandy & James, 1977, cited in Stumpf et al., 1983).

Amendment to CES:

For the purposes of this study, the wording of a number of the items of the CES was slightly modified - without changing the meaning thereof. This was done in order to avoid any misunderstandings or confusion regarding the contents of the questionnaire, as it was originally aimed at an American, not a South African, population.

4.5.1.4. Career Strategies Inventory (CSI)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to assess the efficiency of various career strategies utilised by the individual in order to manage his/her career more effectively.

Development of the CSI:

Gould et al. (1984) have developed the Career Strategies Inventory (CSI) for the purpose of studying career strategies within an organisational context.

This questionnaire consists of seven dimensions, i.e. Creating opportunities, Extended work involvement, Self-nomination / Self-presentation, Seeking career guidance, Networking and interpersonal attraction, Opinion conformity and Other enhancement (Gould et al., 1984).

Noe adjusted the CSI to better fit the format of his survey, i.e. the original CSI would have been too extensive to utilise in addition to the CES.

Because this study attempts to re-investigate Noe's findings, the adapted version of the CSI (Noe, 1996) was utilised for the purposes of this research study. This questionnaire forms the third section of the Career Management Questionnaire.

The CSI has been used in a limited number of research studies:

- Gould et al. (1984) conducted a study regarding the relationship between career strategies and salary progression in a municipal bureaucracy;
- Noe (1996) researched the relationship between career management and employee development and performance. Noe adapted the original version of the CSI for the purposes of his study. The modifications to the CSI included *firstly* that four dimensions instead of seven dimensions were measured, *secondly* that additional items were added to dimensions and *thirdly* that changes were made to the wording of some of the

items in the questionnaire, without alterations to the meaning thereof (Noe, 1996).

Networking behaviour was assessed by two items from the CSI and by two items developed by him; the dimensions *Creating opportunities* and *Self-nomination* were measured by three items respectively, all taken from the CSI and the dimension pertaining to the extent to which individuals *Seek Career Guidance*, was measured by four items, three from the CSI and one developed by him.

Dimensions of the CSI:

The adapted version of the CSI questionnaire (Noe, 1996) consists of four dimensions, which measure the extent to which the individual utilises certain career strategies to manage his/her career. These dimensions include, inter alia, networking, the creation of opportunities, self-nomination and career guidance.

Networking

This dimension measures the extent to which the individual builds informal relationships and forms networks of contacts with colleagues and influential individuals in the workplace.

Creation of opportunities

This dimension refers to the individual's efforts to create new opportunities for himself/herself by developing new skills and gaining expertise in a certain field that is critical to the organisation's operation.

Self-nomination

Self-nomination measures the extent to which the individual informs his/her supervisor or manager of his/her accomplishments, aspirations and career goals. It also includes the individual's efforts to nominate himself/herself for various job assignments.

Career guidance

This dimension is an important career strategy and measures the degree to which the individual seeks career guidance from more experienced individuals, either within the organisation or externally.

Scoring of the CSI:

The adapted version of the CSI (Noe, 1996) consists of fifteen items. All the items are measured on a five-point scale.

A low score on each item is indicative of limited or no involvement by the individual in utilising a specific career strategy to manage his/her career. However, a high score reflects that the individual has significantly utilised a specific career strategy in order to advance his/her career.

The higher the total score on this section of the Career Management Questionnaire, the more extensively the individual has made use of various career strategies to manage his/her career more effectively.

4.5.2. Job Performance Questionnaire

Noe developed this questionnaire on the basis of the measure used by Colarelli, Dean and Konstans (Colarelli, Dean & Konstans, 1987; Noe, 1996) (Refer to Appendix C).

A supervisor or manager is required to administer this questionnaire by rating the job performance of his/her subordinate(s) on a six-point scale.

4.5.2.1. Covering Letter

A covering letter was attached to the Job Performance Questionnaire, which was distributed to the supervisors / managers of all individuals who had completed the Career Management Questionnaire (See Appendix D).

This covering letter contained similar information to that contained in the covering letter attached to the Career Management Questionnaire, namely the purpose of the study, general instructions

pertaining to the questionnaire and a guarantee of complete confidentiality.

4.5.2.2. Items of the Job Performance Questionnaire

This questionnaire initially consisted of four items, which measured the job performance dimension. For the purpose of this research study, however, the fourth job performance item was altered. This item was originally developed to measure the individual's motivation to develop technical and interpersonal skills in order to improve his/her work effectiveness. Because of the fact that two constructs (technical skills and interpersonal skills) are measured simultaneously by one item only, a fifth item was included in the questionnaire. Accordingly, each construct could now be measured as a separate item. The questionnaire that was administered in this study, therefore, consisted of five items instead of the original four.

Items of the Job Performance Questionnaire:

This questionnaire consists of the following items that serve as measures of the dimension of effective job performance:

Rehiring potential

This item is speculative in nature and requires the supervisor / manager to assume that the subordinate re-applies for his/her job after he/she has resigned from the company. The supervisor then needs to assess to what degree he/she would feel comfortable in rehiring this individual in the same capacity. This assumption has to be based on the individual's past performance in that specific capacity.

Comparison with labour market

This item measures the individual's value in terms of skills, qualifications, traits and competencies and compares it to skills, qualifications, traits and competencies available in the labour market. Consequently, this item gives an indication of how difficult or how

easy it would be to find someone with similar attributes to fill the position.

Overall job performance

This item is a critical one in the questionnaire and reflects the effectiveness and efficiency of the individual in his/her job. It requires the supervisor / manager to give a critical evaluation of the subordinate's overall job performance.

Motivation to develop interpersonal skills

This item reflects the individual's willingness to develop himself/herself by learning new skills in order to improve his/her relations with others, as well as his/her work effectiveness.

Motivation to develop technical skills

The individual's dedication and commitment to developing technical skills gives an indication of how willing he/she is to obtain more specific work-related skills that will enable him/her to perform the job more effectively.

4.5.2.3. Scoring of the Job Performance Questionnaire

The Job Performance Questionnaire consists of five items, pertaining to the individual's performance in his/her current position.

Each item is measured on a six-point scale. The scoring of items 1, 3, 4, and 5 is similar in that high scores reflect good job performance and low scores reflect poor job performance. However, the opposite applies to the second item, which is a negative question, where a low score is indicative of good job performance and a high score reflects poor job performance.

4.6. THE RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The potential sample across all the industries included 400 individuals. Because of the large sample size and the logistics related to the diversity of the industries, fieldworkers were identified in each industry to assist with the research process.

This research process commenced with each fieldworker distributing the *Career Management Questionnaire*, consisting of the *Career Exploration Survey (CES)* and the *adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory (CSI)*, amongst the individuals that formed the potential sample in the respective industry (Refer to Appendix A). Envelopes were distributed together with the questionnaires to ensure complete confidentiality to all participants upon completion of their questionnaires.

Approximately four weeks were allowed for the completion of this questionnaire. The next step in the research process involved the collection of the envelopes containing the completed questionnaires, from the individuals in the sample, by the respective fieldworkers. The various fieldworkers immediately returned the envelopes with the questionnaires to the researcher - in the exact same format as they were received from the participants.

The researcher then compiled separate lists for each industry, comprising of the names of all individuals who had completed a *Career Management Questionnaire*. Accordingly, each fieldworker received a list with the names of all the individuals in the industry for which he/she was responsible who had completed this questionnaire.

The third step in the research process then followed. This step required that all the supervisors / managers of the individuals whose names appeared on the respective lists, i.e. those individuals who had completed the *Career Management Questionnaire*, had to be identified. The fieldworkers then distributed a *Job Performance Questionnaire*, together with an envelope, to all the relevant supervisors / managers (Refer to Appendix C). Once he/she had completed the questionnaire(s) on the job performance of his/her subordinate(s), the completed questionnaire(s) was sealed in the envelope provided. The fieldworkers collected these questionnaires from the supervisors / managers and submitted them to the researcher.

4.7. RESPONSE RATE

A final response rate of 76.5% of the potential number of individuals was obtained for the completion of both questionnaires across all five industries.

The response rate for the first questionnaire (*Career Management Questionnaire*) is depicted in Table 2:

Table 2: Response Rate to Career Management Questionnaire

	Potential sample	Completion of Questionnaire	%
Banking	80	63	78.75
Manufacturing	80	64	80
Health Care	80	70	87.5
Mining	80	65	81.25
Property	80	63	78.75
TOTAL	400	325	81.25

The response rate for the second questionnaire (Job Performance Questionnaire) is given in Table 3:

Table 3: Response Rate to Job Performance Questionnaire

	Potential sample*	Completion of Questionnaire	%
Banking	63	61	96.82
Manufacturing	64	60	93.75
Health Care	70	65	92.86
Mining	65	62	95.38
Property	63	59	93.65
TOTAL	325	307	94.46

(*The potential sample only included those individuals whose Career Management Questionnaires had been returned)

The total response rate for the completion of both questionnaires is set out in Table 4:

Table 4: Response Rate for both questionnaires

	Potential sample	Completion of both Questionnaires	%
Banking	80	61	76.25
Manufacturing	80	60	75

Health Care	80	65	81.25
Mining	80	62	77.5
Property	80	59	73.75
TOTAL	400	307	76.75

Various opinions exist in literature regarding acceptable response rates. Mangione (1995, pp.60-61) writes that: "Response rates in the 70% to 85% range are viewed as very good. Responses in the 60% to 70% range are considered acceptable...Response rates between 50% and 60% are barely acceptable...Response rates below 50% really are not scientifically acceptable."

The response rate obtained from the sample in this study can, therefore, be regarded as being very good.

4.8. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

A sample, consisting of 307 individuals, formed part of this research study. An analysis was done to determine the characteristics of this sample group.

The sample was analysed in terms of the biographical characteristics, which were obtained from Section A (Biographical Data) of the Career Self-Management Questionnaire. These biographical characteristics include inter alia: age, gender, population group, position in the current organisation, years employed by the current organisation, years' experience in current job, total years' working experience and qualifications.

4.8.1. Age

As shown in

Figure 21, the age of the sample group varied significantly. The majority of the respondents (31.3%) were between 20 and 30 years of age, whilst the age of 30.6% of the sample group was between 31 and 40 years. Another 25.1% of the sample fell in the age category 41 to 50 years. Only 10.7% were older than 50 years, whilst an even smaller percentage - 2.3% - of the individuals in the sample were younger than 20 years.

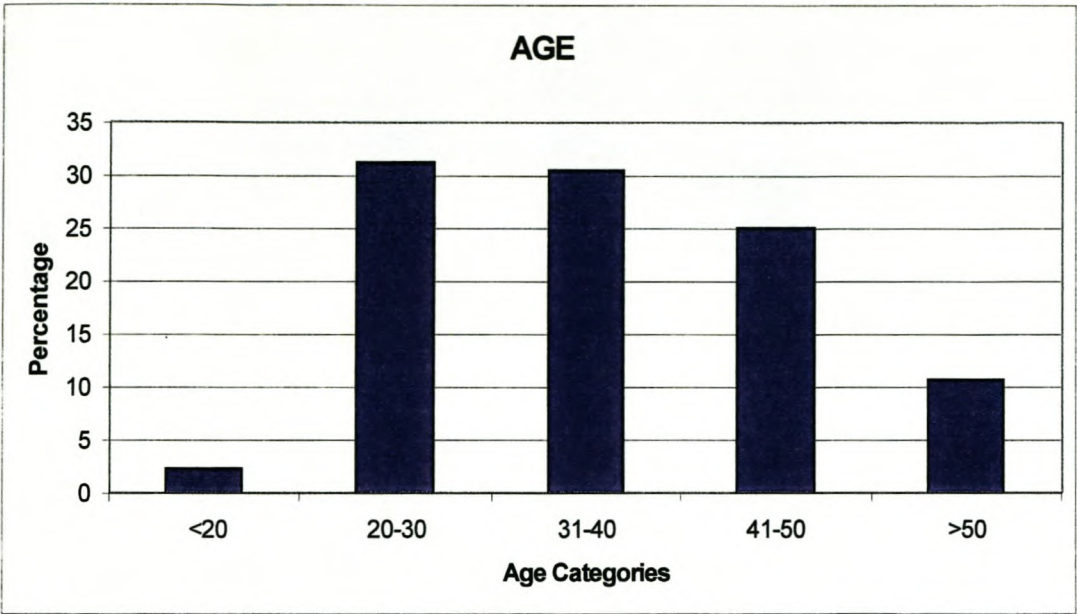


Figure 21: Age of individuals in the sample group

4.8.2. Gender

The gender distribution was fairly equal in the sample group (as indicated in *Figure 22*). 56% of the sample group consisted of females, whilst 44% of the group were males.

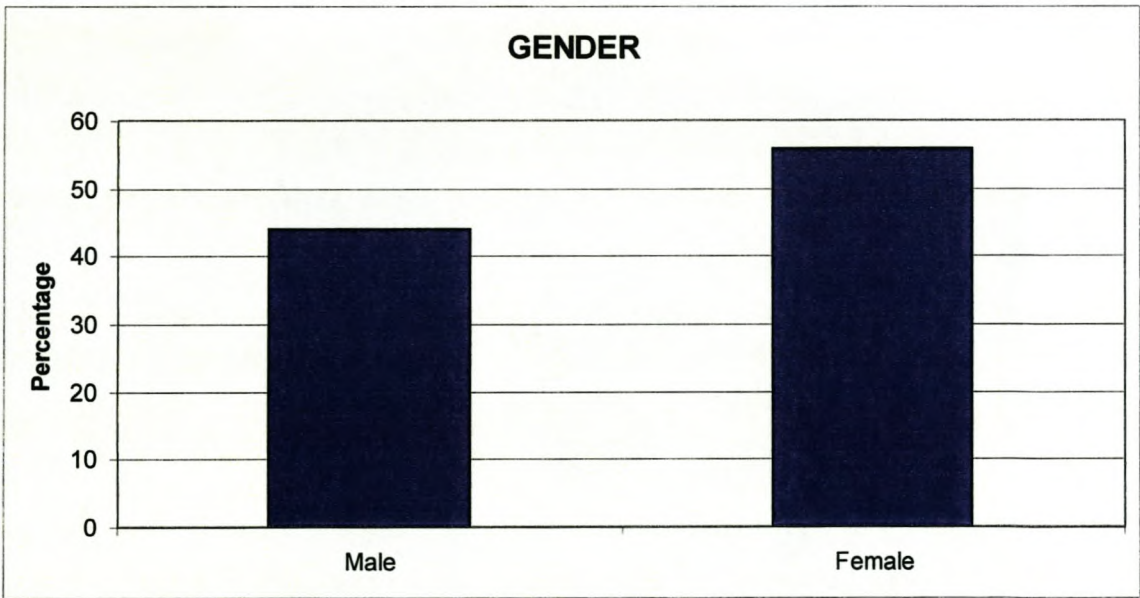


Figure 22: Gender of individuals in the sample group

4.8.3. Population group

The distribution of individuals between the various population groups is depicted in *Figure 23*. The majority of the sample group (74.3%) belonged to the White population group. The rest of the individuals in the sample group were distributed amongst the other population groups, with 16.6% of the sample belonging to the Coloured population group, 7.8% to the Black population group, 1.0% to the Asian group and 0.3% of the sample to another population group.

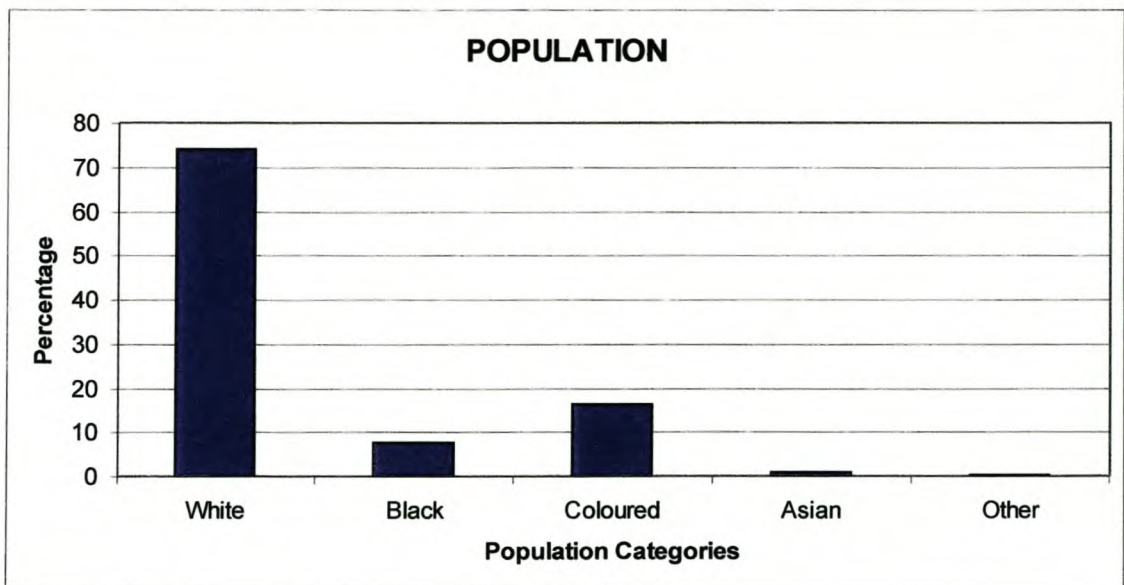


Figure 23: Population of individuals in the sample group

4.8.4. Position in the current organisation

The individuals in the sample group were either employed in managerial, technical-professional or clerical capacities, as seen in *Figure 24*. According to the data obtained from the Biographical Data Section of the Career Self-Management Questionnaire, the majority of the sample group were technical-professionals (58.3%), whilst 23.1% were clerical workers and the other 18.6% of the sample group were individuals appointed in managerial capacities.

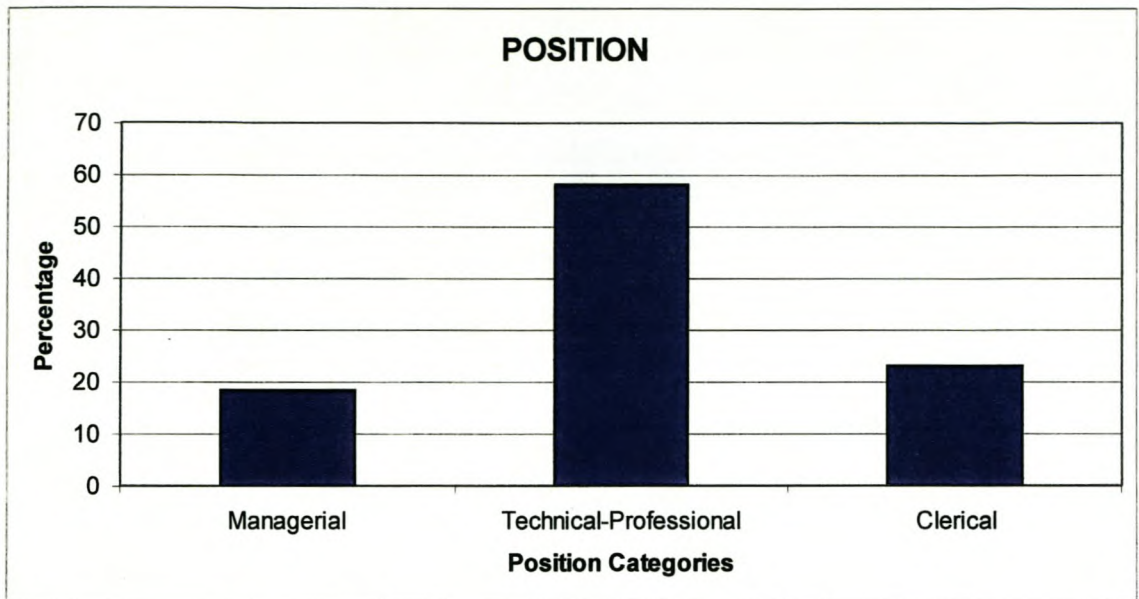


Figure 24: Position in the organisation of individuals in the sample group



Figure 25: Years of employment by the current organisation of individuals in the sample group

4.8.5. Years employed by current organisation

With regard to years of employment by the current organisation, individuals in the sample group were predominantly distributed amongst the first four

categories thereof, as illustrated in *Figure 25*. 28.7% of the individuals had a service record of between 2 and 5 years at the organisation, whilst 27.7% were employed between 11 and 25 years at the specific organisation. Very few individuals (only 2.0%) were employed in excess of 25 years at the current organisation.

4.8.6. Years' experience in current job

Figure 26 shows that the majority of the individuals (45.6%) that formed the sample group had less than 5 years' experience in their jobs. Only 4.9% of the individuals had more than 20 years' experience in their current positions. 27.4% of the individuals in the sample had between 5 and 10 years' experience, whilst 22.1% of them had between 11 and 20 years' working experience.

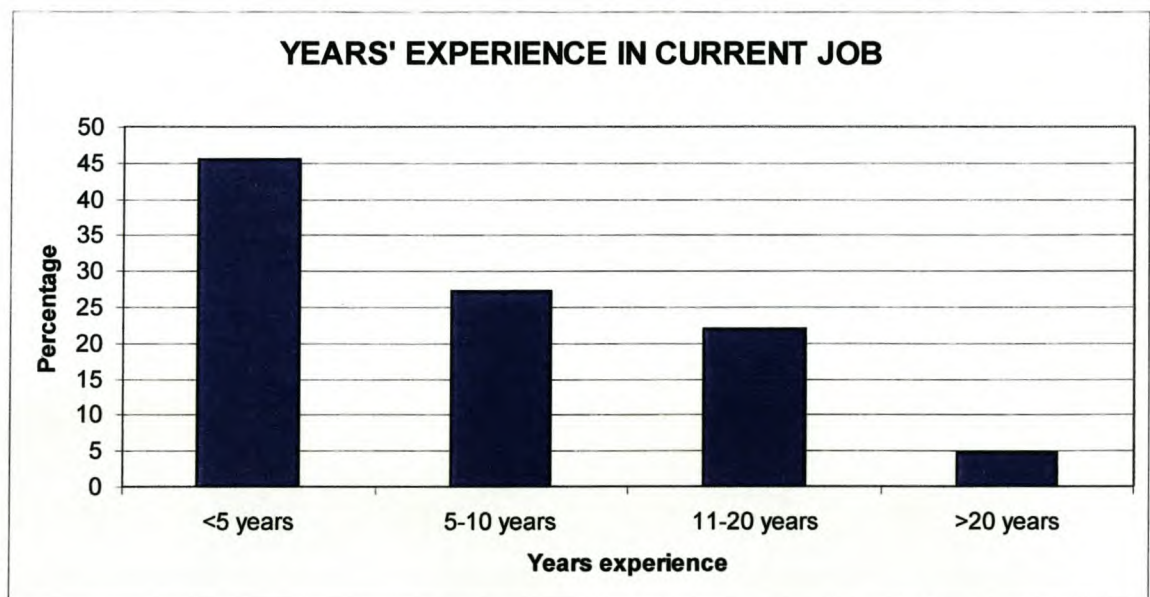


Figure 26: Years' experience in current job of individuals in the sample group

4.8.7. Total years' working experience

Individuals were distributed amongst all five categories of total years' working experience, as captured in *Figure 27*. The majority of the sample group, 32.9%, had between 11 and 20 years' working experience. Only 7.5% of the sample group had more than 30 years' working experience.

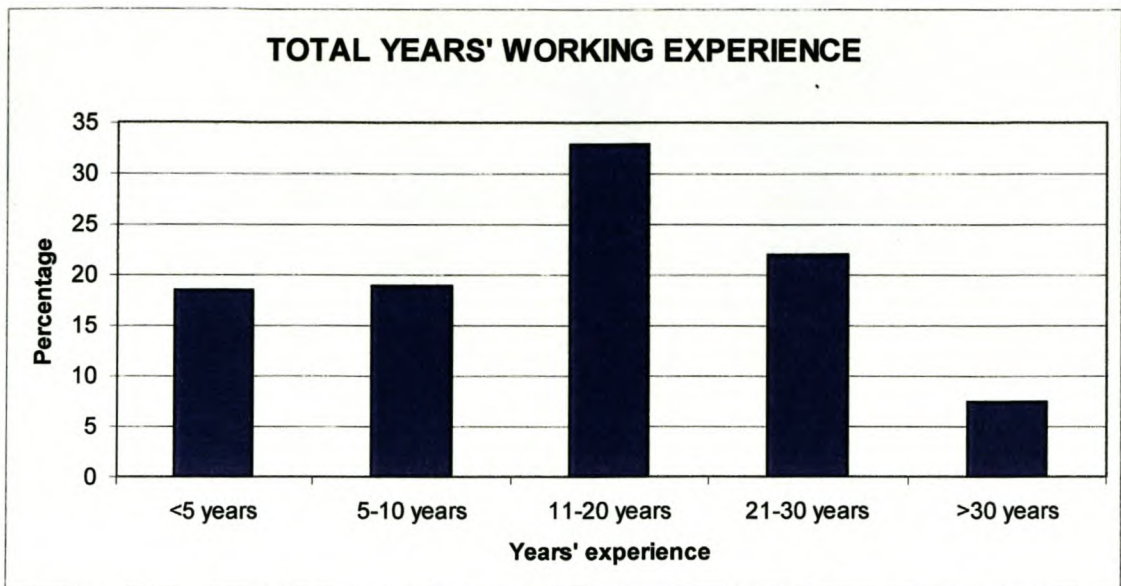


Figure 27: Total years' working experience of individuals in the sample group

4.8.8. Qualifications

Figure 28 shows that a large number of individuals in the sample group had qualifications equal to Grade 12 (Matric), i.e. 34.9%. Another 37.1% of the group possessed either a Certificate or a Diploma. The rest of the sample group had either less than a Grade 12 qualification, possessed a degree or had a postgraduate qualification.

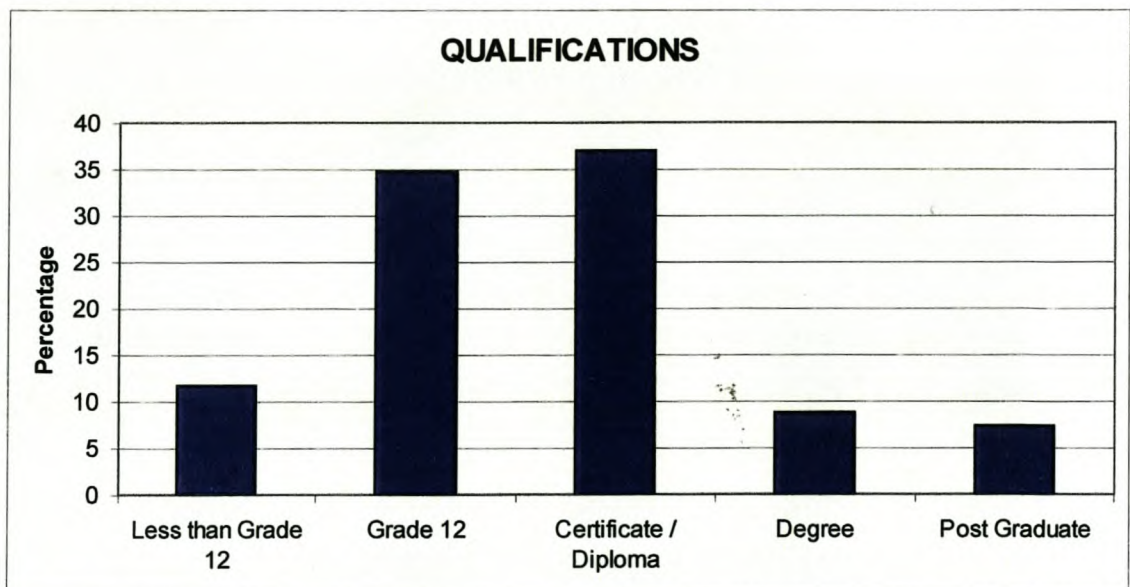


Figure 28: Qualifications of individuals in the sample group

4.9. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

The analysis of the data was determined by several leading questions. These questions included:

1. Does empirical evidence exist for the theoretical assumption that the Career Management Questionnaire measures the three components of career self-management, i.e. career exploration, career goals and career strategies?
2. Does empirical evidence exist for the theoretical assumption that the Job Performance Questionnaire measures the construct *job performance*?
3. How reliable and valid is the Career Management Questionnaire?
4. How reliable and valid is the Job Performance Questionnaire?
5. Does a relation exist between the extent to which an individual manages his/her career and biographical variables specific to the individual?
6. Is career self-management a predictor of job performance?
7. Is each of the components of career self-management (career exploration, career goals and career strategies) respectively a predictor of job performance?

The results obtained from the two questionnaires, i.e. the Career Management Questionnaire and the Job Performance Questionnaire, were analysed using the SAS programme.

In order to answer the above-mentioned questions, appropriate statistical analysis procedures were utilised, including the following:

Firstly, a factor analysis on the items of the scales was used to determine the underlying factors. In order to verify the construct validity of the scales, the items were subjected to a principal components analysis with varimax rotation.

Thereafter, the reliability of the two measuring instruments was assessed through an item reliability test conducted on each dimension. The alpha model was applied, consequently producing the coefficient alpha.

The correlation coefficient measures the degree of linear relationship between two variables (Huysamen, 1984). The next step in the statistical analysis was thus to

determine the direction and strength of the relationship between the two variables, i.e. between career self-management and job performance. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) was utilised to measure the extent of this linear relationship.

A canonical correlation procedure was also used to analyse the relationship between a linear combination of the independent variables (career exploration, career goal setting and career strategising) and a linear combination of the dependent variable (job performance).

The last procedure that was conducted in order to provide answers to the above-mentioned leading questions, was hierarchical regression analysis. This analysis was done to determine how much of the variance in job performance could be explained by each step of the career self-management process.

The predictive quality of the biographical variables was lastly determined through regression and correlation procedures.

These statistical procedures are described in more detail in Chapter 5.

4.10. CONCLUSION

The methodology that was followed during the course of this research was discussed in this Chapter.

Chapter 5 will accordingly give an outline of all the *statistical procedures* that were conducted for the purposes of this study as well as a *theoretical background* to each of these procedures.

CHAPTER 5

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESULTS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The results of the research study as well as the statistical techniques that were utilised to obtain these results, are reported in this Chapter. The statistical results were obtained by means of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) package.

The statistical procedures that were followed during the course of this Chapter include:

- Assessing the *reliability* of the measuring instruments by means of the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient;
- Assessing the *construct validity* of the measuring instruments by conducting a factor analysis;
- Utilising *analysis of variance* (ANOVA) to ascertain whether any significant statistical differences exist between the averages of each of the biographical factors with regard to the independent variable, career self-management;
- Determining the relationship between the various independent variables and the dependent variable, job performance, by utilising the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to calculate the *correlation* between the variables;
- Determining the relationship between the two sets of variables by using the *canonical correlation* statistical technique;
- Conducting a *hierarchical regression analysis* and thereby determining whether the independent variable, career self-management, can predict the value of the dependent variable, job performance.

5.2. RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The reliability of a test refers to “how consistently it measures whatever it measures” (Huysamen, 1983, p.24). Kerlinger (1986, p.405) defines this concept as “the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument”.

The concept thus presupposes that the attribute being measured remains stable during the repeated administrations of the test and that the scores obtained from one administration of the test are unaffected by the scores obtained on any previous administrations of it (Huysamen, 1983).

The Cronbach Alpha Correlation Coefficient was utilised to calculate the reliability of the measuring instruments. This Correlation Coefficient reflects the degree of internal consistency of a test and indicates the extent to which all the items in the test measure the same attribute. This Coefficient can be calculated with the following equation (Huysamen, 1983, p.31):

$$\text{Coefficient } \alpha = \left\{ \frac{J}{J-1} \right\} \left\{ 1 - \frac{\text{sum of the item variance}}{\text{variance of the total test}} \right\}$$

where J is the total number of items in the test.

A test's reliability (true score) and its “unreliability” (error score) is regarded as two proportions that add up to unity (1.00). The value of the Cronbach Alpha Correlation Coefficient can therefore vary between 0 and 1. The closer the value is to 1, the more consistent the measurement and thus the more reliable the test; the closer the value is to 0, the less reliable the test. A Cronbach Alpha Correlation Coefficient of 0.5 is regarded as statistically significant (De Waal, 1997; Huysamen, 1983).

Table 5 gives a summary of the Cronbach Alpha values of the Career Exploration Survey, which constitutes Section B of the Career Management Questionnaire.

An analysis of these values indicate that the Cronbach Alpha values for all the dimensions of the questionnaire are high, varying between 0.721 and 0.910. The items within each of the dimensions of the CES were therefore homogeneous, i.e. testing the specific dimension that it was suppose to test. The Cronbach Alpha value for the CES in total is 0.916, which is also

extremely high. It can therefore be concluded that the Career Exploration Survey is reliable and measures a single variable, namely *career exploration*, in terms of the population that completed the questionnaire.

Table 5: *The reliability of the Career Exploration Survey (CES)*

Dimension **	Cronbach Alpha Value
Amount of Information	0.721*
Satisfaction with Information	0.883*
Focus	0.845*
Intended-Systematic Exploration	0.832*
Environmental exploration	0.825*
Self-Exploration	0.818*
Method Instrumentality	0.910*
Internal Search Instrumentality	0.725*
External Search Instrumentality	0.826*
Importance of obtaining Preferred Position	0.842*
Exploration Stress	0.777*
Decisional Stress	0.819*
TOTAL CES (ALL DIMENSIONS)	0.916*

(*Statistically significant; Cronbach Alpha > 0.5)

(**Please note that the dimensions *Number of occupations considered*, *Employment outlook* and *Frequency* consists of less than three items and the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was not calculated.)

Table 6 depicts a summary of the Cronbach Alpha values of the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory, which constitutes Section C of the Career Management Questionnaire.

Again, the Cronbach Alpha values are high for the various dimensions, varying between 0.688 and 0.803. The items within each of the dimensions of the CSI are therefore homogeneous, measuring a single variable. The Cronbach Alpha

Correlation Coefficient also proved to be very high for the CSI in total, i.e. 0.863. The conclusion can thus be drawn that the CSI is a reliable measuring instrument for the testing of the variable *career strategies* on a similar population.

Table 6: *The reliability of the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory (CSI)*

Dimension	Cronbach Alpha Value
Networking	0.803*
Creating Opportunities	0.688*
Self-Nomination	0.786*
Seeking Career Guidance	0.755*
TOTAL CSI (ALL DIMENSIONS)	0.863*

(*Statistically significant; Cronbach Alpha > 0.5)

Table 7 reflects the Cronbach Alpha value of the Job Performance Questionnaire.

The Cronbach Alpha value of 0.913 was obtained for this questionnaire, which is extremely high. It can thus be concluded that the items within the questionnaire aiming to measure *job performance* were indeed measuring this variable, which means that the items were homogeneous and thus representative of the variable *job performance*. The Job Performance Questionnaire can therefore be regarded as a reliable measuring instrument, given that the population, on which the questionnaire will be taken, has similar characteristics than the population selected for this study.

Table 7: *The reliability of the Job Performance Questionnaire*

Variable	Cronbach Alpha Value
Job Performance	0.913*

(*Statistically significant; Cronbach Alpha > 0.5)

The reliability coefficients vary between 0.688 and 0.913 and are therefore extremely high. No alternative or further methods to determine the reliability of the measuring instruments, were regarded necessary.

5.3. VALIDITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

"Are we measuring what we think we are measuring?" is a typical question asked by researchers during the course of a study. In order to answer this question, the validity of the measuring instrument(s) needs to be established.

There are three types of validity assessment, i.e. content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity. Construct validity is probably the most important form of validity from the scientific point of view because it links psychometric notions and practices to theoretical notions - it is thus preoccupied with theory, theoretical constructs and scientific empirical inquiry involving the testing of hypothesised relations (Huysamen, 1983; Kerlinger, 1986; Singleton, Straits, Straits & McAllister, 1988).

"Construct validation is an analysis of the meaning of test scores in terms of psychological concepts or constructs" (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955, cited in Cronbach, 1970, p.142). Construct validity is involved whenever a measuring instrument is to be interpreted as a measure of some attribute or quality that is not "operationally defined". Construct validity therefore has to be investigated whenever no criterion or universe of content is accepted as entirely adequate to define the quality measured (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

In order to determine the construct validity of a measuring instrument, factor analysis has to be conducted to identify the underlying theoretical construct(s) with a general factor(s).

Factor analysis is a statistical technique that is utilised to summarise the interrelationships among the variables in a concise but accurate manner as an aid in conceptualisation and is therefore regarded as a valuable method in behavioural research (Bailey, 1987; Gorsuch, 1974).

According to Gorsuch (1974) factor analysis has four major objectives:

1. To investigate the intercorrelations between variables by grouping them in a cluster of variables (factors) in such a manner that the variables correlate high within factors;
2. To minimise the number of variables for further research and to maximise the amount of information in the analysis;
3. To explore variable areas in order to identify the factors presumably underlying the variables; and
4. To test hypotheses about relations among variables.

Factor analysis is utilised to establish the construct validity of the measuring instruments.

Firstly, the principal factor method is applied to “extract the maximum amount of variance that can possibly be extracted by a given number of factors” (Gorsuch, 1974, p.86). The first outcome of factor analysis that will be scrutinised is thus the percentage variance that can be explained by the specific measuring instrument.

Secondly, factor loadings are determined. Factor loadings “express the correlations between the tests and the factors” (Kerlinger, 1986, p.572). Factor analysis will therefore not be complete unless it is established by means of factor loadings how factorially pure (measures one factor only) or factorially complex (measures more than one factor) the test(s) is (Huysamen, 1983).

Lastly, the communalities of the variables are also determined with the factor analysis. “The communality of a variable is defined as that part of its variance which overlaps with the factors being extracted” (Gorsuch, 1974, p.94). The extreme limits, which the communalities could take, range between 0.00 (the variable has no correlation with any other variable in the matrix) and 1.00 (the variance is perfectly accounted for by the set of factors underlying the matrix) (Gorsuch, 1974).

Table 8 gives a summary of the construct validity of the Career Exploration Survey (Section B of the Career Management Questionnaire).

The percentage variance explained gives an indication of the degree to which the items can explain the specific construct. 69.19% of the construct career

exploration could therefore be explained by means of the items in this questionnaire, which is statistically significant. *Eleven* factors were extracted from this questionnaire. The communalities ranged between *0.502 and 0.822*. Communalities extracted should preferably be higher than 0.5 to ensure construct validity (Cohen, 1988). The requirement for construct validity was therefore met.

Table 8: *The construct validity of the Career Exploration Survey (CES)*

Measuring Instrument	Percentage variance explained	Number of factors extracted	Communalities
Career Exploration Survey	69.19	11	0.502 – 0.822

Table 9 depicts a summary of the construct validity of the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory (Section C of the Career Management Questionnaire).

In this instance, *63.06%* of the construct career strategies could be explained by means of the items in the questionnaire, which is a statistically significant percentage. *Four* factors were extracted from the CSI. The communalities varied between *0.482 and 0.727*. Besides one individual item, all the communalities were higher than the required 0.5 and it can therefore be concluded that the CSI has construct validity.

Table 9: *The construct validity of the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory (CSI)*

Measuring Instrument	% Variance explained	Number of factors extracted	Communalities
Adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory	63.06	4	0.482 – 0.727

Table 10 gives a summary of the construct validity of the Job Performance Questionnaire.

A very high percentage variance can be explained by means of the items contained in this questionnaire, i.e. 74.63%. This percentage is statistically significant and the questionnaire therefore meets the first requirement of construct validity. Only *one* factor was extracted from this measuring instrument. This means that the Job Performance Questionnaire measures one factor only, namely job performance. Accordingly, the questionnaire can be regarded as factorially pure. The communalities ranged between 0.579 and 0.832. The communalities are therefore extremely high and it can be concluded that this questionnaire adhered to this third criterion of construct validity, as all the communalities are higher than 0.5 and thus statistically significant (Smith et al., 1988).

Table 10: *The construct validity of the Job Performance Questionnaire*

Measuring Instrument	% Variance explained	Number of factors extracted	Communalities
Job Performance Questionnaire	74.63	1	0.579 – 0.832

5.4. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilised with regard to the analysis of the biographical information in this study. Analysis of variance can be defined as the “partitioning, isolation and identification of variation in a dependent variable due to different independent variables” (Pedhazur, 1973, p.3).

The purpose of the analysis of variance in this research was to ascertain whether any statistically significant differences exist between the averages of each of the biographical items with regard to the construct career self-management.

The biographical items include: age, gender, population group, position in the current organisation, years employed by the current organisation, years' experience in the current job, total years' working experience and qualifications.

As indicated in Table 11, it was found that a statistical significant difference exists between the averages of only one of the biographical items, *years employed by the current organisation*, with regard to the construct, career self-management ($p \leq 0.05$).

A statistical significant difference exists between the averages of individuals who have been employed for less than two years at the current organisation and individuals who have been employed between two and five years at the current organisation with regard to their career self-management behaviour.

Table 11: Analysis of variance on biographical data

Biographical Item	P Value
Age	0.5710
Gender	0.1099
Population Group	0.0785
Position in the current organisation	0.3860
Years employed by the current organisation	0.0145*
Years' experience in current job	0.2441
Total years' working experience	0.8700
Qualifications	0.3172

(*Statistical significant; $p \leq 0.05$)

As a result of the statistical significant difference that exists between the averages of two of the groups of the biographical item *years employed by the current organisation*, the practical statistical significance of this difference had to be calculated.

The formula that is used to calculate practical significance is (Cohen, 1988, p.356):

$$f = \sqrt{(k-1)F / (N-k)}$$

where f is the effect size;

k is the population means;

F is the test statistic obtained from the F test;

N is the sample size.

The practical significance in this instance was calculated as $f = 0.205$, which is regarded as a medium effect size. An f value of equal or higher than 0.4 is regarded as a large effect size and thus an indication of practical significance (Cohen, 1988).

The conclusion can therefore be drawn that the averages of the two groups in the biographical item *years employed by the current organisation* do not differ practically significantly ($p < 0.4$).

It can therefore be concluded that no practical significant difference exists between the averages of the biographical items with regard to career self-management behaviour and activities of the individuals that formed part of the sample group.

5.5. CORRELATION

The purpose of correlation is to provide an objective measure of the direction and strength of the relationship between two variables (Huysamen, 1983).

Various correlation coefficients can be used to calculate the correlation, which is a statistical summary of the relation between two variables (Cronbach, 1970).

The *Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient* (r) was utilised in this instance to measure the extent of the linear relationship between two variables (Huysamen, 1983, p.68; Steyn, Smit & Du Toit, 1989, p.131):

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

According to Kerlinger (1986, p.189) an *r*-value of “less than 0.10 cannot be taken too seriously”, whilst an *r*-value of “0.30 ... is statistically significant”.

Table 12 summarises the results obtained from the correlation between various independent variables (all the dimensions that constitute career exploration) and the dependent variable, job performance.

None of the correlations between each of the various independent variables (amount of information, satisfaction with information, intended-systematic exploration, environmental exploration, self-exploration, number of occupations considered, employment outlook, frequency, method instrumentality, internal search instrumentality, external search instrumentality, importance of obtaining preferred position, exploration stress and decisional stress) and the dependent variable, job performance, was statistically significant. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (*r*) was therefore smaller than 0.3 in all correlation cases.

Table 12: *Correlation between each of the dimensions constituting the independent variable Career Exploration and the dependent variable Job Performance*

Dimensions	Pearson Correlation Coefficient
Amount of Information	0.0462
Satisfaction with Information	0.1055
Intended-Systematic Exploration	0.1571
Environmental exploration	-0.0542
Self-Exploration	0.0882
Number of Occupations considered	-0.1208
Employment Outlook	-0.0158
Frequency	-0.1597

Method Instrumentality	0.0300
Internal Search Instrumentality	0.0120
External Search Instrumentality	-0.0111
Importance of obtaining Preferred Position	0.0882
Exploration Stress	-0.1987
Decisional Stress	-0.1211

Table 13 depicts the results obtained from the correlations between each of the dimensions that constitute career strategising and job performance.

Again, no strong linear relationships exist between the independent variables (networking, creating opportunities, self-nomination and seeking career guidance) and the dependent variable, job performance.

Table 13: *Correlation between each of the dimensions constituting the independent variable Career Strategising and the dependent variable Job Performance*

Dimension	Pearson Correlation Coefficient
Networking	0.0996
Creating Opportunities	0.1940
Self-Nomination	0.0480
Seeking Career Guidance	-0.0218

5.6. CANONICAL CORRELATION

An extension of multiple regression to the multivariate case involves the calculation of *canonical correlations* between canonical variates, which are linear combinations of the original variables (Marriott, 1974).

Canonical correlation is a technique that is utilised to analyse the relationship between two sets of variables. "Given two sets of variables, canonical

correlation finds a linear combination from each set, called a canonical variable, such that the correlation between the two canonical variables is maximised" (SAS User's Guide, 1985, p.140).

According to Bentler et al. (1982, cited in Hirschberg & Humphreys, 1982) canonical correlation analysis is conducted according to the following steps:

- Testing to determine whether the two domains are significantly correlated;
- Forming of weighted sums in each domain in an optimal manner so that the cross-domain correlations can be explained by as few of the sums as possible;
- Testing to determine how many of the weighted linear combinations are necessary and statistically robust.

The ultimate usefulness of this procedure is dependant on two criteria, i.e. how well a small number of canonical variates can summarise statistical association through the canonical correlations and also how well the variates can be conceptualised and interpreted (Bentler et al., 1982, cited in Hirschberg et al., 1982).

Canonical correlation was utilised in this research to analyse the relationship between a linear combination of variables in career self-management and a linear combination of variables in job performance.

Table 14 summarises the results obtained from the canonical correlation between *career exploration* and job performance.

It was found that a linear combination of variables in career exploration and a linear combination of variables in job performance do correlate statistically significantly with each other across the five industries (Wilks' Lambda = 0.0116; $p < 0.05$). However, no statistically significant correlations were found between the linear combinations of the two sets of variables in any of the particular industries (Wilks' Lambda > 0.05).

Table 14: Canonical Correlation between independent variable *Career Exploration* and dependent variable *Job Performance*

Measurements (per industry)	Wilks' Lambda
Property Industry	0.6577
Banking Industry	0.8721
Mining Industry	0.2109
Health Care Industry	0.1808
Manufacturing Industry	0.2730
TOTAL	0.0116*

(*Statistical significant; $p \leq 0.05$)

Table 15 summarises the information obtained from the canonical correlation analysis conducted between *career goal setting* and *job performance*.

It was found that a linear combination of variables in career goal setting and a linear combination of variables in job performance correlate significantly across the five industries (Wilks' Lambda = 0.0285; $p < 0.05$) and also in one specific industry, namely the health care industry (Wilks' Lambda = 0.0146; $p < 0.05$).

Table 15: Canonical Correlation between independent variable *Career Goals* and dependent variable *Job Performance*

Measurements (per industry)	Wilks' Lambda
Property Industry	0.7174
Banking Industry	0.6152
Mining Industry	0.3346
Health Care Industry	0.0146*
Manufacturing Industry	0.8378
TOTAL	0.0285*

(*Statistical significant; $p \leq 0.05$)

Table 16 depicts the data obtained from the canonical correlation between one of the career self-management components, namely *career strategising*, and job performance. According to the statistics obtained, a linear combination of variables in career strategising and a linear combination of variables in job performance correlate statistically significantly across the five industries (Wilks' Lambda = 0.0166; $p < 0.05$), but no canonical correlations were obtained in any of the particular industries.

Table 16: Canonical Correlation between independent variable Career Strategies and dependent variable Job Performance

Measurements (per industry)	Wilks' Lambda
Property Industry	0.5527
Banking Industry	0.3352
Mining Industry	0.5727
Health Care Industry	0.1637
Manufacturing Industry	0.2136
TOTAL	0.0166*

(*Statistical significant; $p \leq 0.05$)

Table 17 summarises the results of the canonical correlation analysis between all the independent variables (career exploration, career goal setting and career strategising) that comprise the major independent variable, *career self-management*, and job performance.

It can be concluded that a statistically significant correlation exists between a linear combination of variables in career self-management and a linear combination of variables in job performance across the five industries (Wilks' Lambda = 0.0404; $p < 0.05$).

Table 17: *Canonical Correlation between independent variables Career Exploration, Career Goals and Career Strategies (Career Self-Management) and dependent variable Job Performance*

Measurement**	Wilks' Lambda
TOTAL	0.0404*

(*Statistical significant; $p \leq 0.05$)

(**The Canonical Correlation between career self-management and job performance could not be calculated per industry as the number of variables to be correlated exceeds the number of observations per industry.)

5.7. HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSIS

The purpose of regression analysis is to use values obtained from the independent variable to predict values of the dependent variable (Huysamen, 1984).

The basic equation of simple linear regression is (Kerlinger, 1986, p.529):

$$Y' = a + bX$$

where X = the scores of the dependent variable;

a = intercept constant;

b = regression coefficient;

Y' = predicted scores of the dependent variable.

R-Square is the coefficient of determination and was utilised during the course of this analysis to determine how well the equation resulting from the regression analysis explains the relationship among the variables. This coefficient compares estimated and actual y-values, and ranges in value from 0 to 1. If it is 1, there is a perfect correlation in the sample, i.e. there is no difference between the estimated y-value and the actual y-value. At the other extreme, if the coefficient of determination is 0, the regression equation is not helpful in predicting the y-value (Kreyszig, 1988; Huysamen, 1984).

The purpose of the regression analysis in this research was to ascertain whether job performance can be predicted by career self-management. The degree to which each of the career self-management components (career

exploration, career goals and career strategies) can determine job performance, was also investigated.

Table 18 summarises the results obtained from the regression analysis conducted to determine whether job performance can be predicted by the independent variable, *career exploration*.

Not one of the R-Square values obtained from the measurements (per industry or for the industries in total) was found to be statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). It can therefore be concluded that career exploration values are not predictive of job performance values.

Table 18: Hierarchical Regression Results of the relationships between independent variable Career Exploration and dependent variable Job Performance

Measurements (per industry)	R-Square
Property Industry	0.0165
Banking Industry	0.0428
Mining Industry	0.0609
Health Care Industry	0.0031
Manufacturing Industry	0.0126
TOTAL (ALL INDUSTRIES)	0.0011

Table 19 summarises the results obtained from the hierarchical regression between *career goal setting* and job performance.

Based on the low R-Square values obtained from this analysis (per industry and for the industries in total), it is evident that the extent to which an individual sets career goals for himself/herself, cannot be utilised to predict the individual's job performance ($p > 0.05$).

Table 19: Hierarchical Regression Results between independent variable
Career Goals and dependent variable Job Performance

Measurements (per industry)	R-Square
Property Industry	0.0480
Banking Industry	0.0024
Mining Industry	0.0588
Health Care Industry	0.0180
Manufacturing Industry	0.0250
TOTAL (ALL INDUSTRIES)	0.0229

Table 20 depicts the information obtained from the regression analysis conducted to determine whether the degree to which the individual formulate and implement certain *career strategies* are predictive of his/her job performance.

Very low R-Square values were obtained with the regression analysis - per industry as well as for the industries in total ($p > 0.05$). The conclusion can thus be drawn that the degree to which an individual formulate and implement career strategies cannot be used to predict an individual's job performance.

Table 20: Hierarchical Regression Results between independent variable
Career Strategies and dependent variable Job Performance

Measurements (per industry)	R-Square
Property Industry	0.0031
Banking Industry	0.0066
Mining Industry	0.0769
Health Care Industry	0.0134
Manufacturing Industry	0.0000
TOTAL (ALL INDUSTRIES)	0.0102

Table 21 summarises the regression results obtained between the variable *career self-management* (consisting of career exploration, career goal setting and career strategising) and the variable job performance.

Unfortunately, again very low R-Square values were obtained with the hierarchical regression analysis ($p > 0.05$). This means that the independent variable, career self-management, cannot be used to predict the dependent variable, job performance. The conclusion can therefore be drawn that the extent to which an individual manages his/her career has no linear relationship with his/her job performance.

Table 21: *Hierarchical Regression Results between independent variables Career Exploration, Career Goals and Career Strategies (Career Self-Management) and dependent variable Job Performance*

Measurements (per industry)	R-Square
Property Industry	0.0044
Banking Industry	0.0007
Mining Industry	0.1143
Health Care Industry	0.0143
Manufacturing Industry	0.0001
TOTAL (ALL INDUSTRIES)	0.0120

5.8. CONCLUSION

Statistical results regarding the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments as well as the correlation, canonical correlation and hierarchical regression results have been obtained. The impact of these results on the study and the interpretation thereof will accordingly be discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this Chapter is to provide a comprehensive *analysis* and *discussion* of the statistical results, which were obtained by means of various statistical procedures, as described in the previous Chapter.

During the course of this Chapter the research questions will therefore be answered and the research hypotheses, which were set at the commencement of this study, will either be confirmed or rejected.

The Chapter is divided into various sub-sections which focus on different aspects of the results. The first part of this Chapter encompasses a summary of the main *findings* of the research. *Recommendations* were deduced from the findings and are discussed in the next section of the Chapter. The major problems encountered during the course of this study, that consequently lead to certain *limitations* in the study, are also mentioned. Another important part of the Chapter focuses on the *value* of this study. A section on *future research opportunities*, which followed from this research, concludes this Chapter.

6.2. FINDINGS

Career self-management is a process aimed at determining the direction of an individual's career. This process starts with the individual conducting career exploration, followed by setting challenging, obtainable, realistic career goals and ultimately developing career strategies to realise these career goals (Schein, 1978; Greenhaus et al., 1994).

The major objective of this study was to ascertain whether an individual's job performance improves significantly if he/she engages in extensive career self-management activities. Subsequent objectives, following from the major objective, included questions about:

- whether job performance improves with an increase in career exploration;
- whether job performance improves with an increase and/or focus in career goal setting;
- whether job performance improves with an increase in the degree of career strategising;
- whether job performance improves with an increase in the amount of information obtained on career-related aspects;
- whether job performance improves with an increase in the frequency of career exploration; and
- whether biographical factors influence the degree to which an individual conducts career self-management.

Taking the major objective as well as the subsequent objectives into consideration, the following findings have been made after an in-depth analysis of the statistical data:

6.2.1. Reliability and Validity of Measuring Instruments

In order to determine the statistical relationship between the various constructs, each of the constructs had to be measured. Three instruments were utilised to measure the constructs, namely: the Career Exploration Survey (CES) to measure career exploration and career goal setting, the adapted version of the Career Strategies Inventory (CSI) to measure career strategising and the Job Performance Questionnaire to measure job performance.

The reliability and validity of these measuring instruments had to be assessed, in order to determine whether these instruments were indeed measuring what they purport to measure. All the above-mentioned instruments proved, however, to possess high levels of reliability and validity. The first significant finding of this research study is therefore that the measuring instruments do measure the constructs that they intend to measure. As a result of this finding, the instruments were regarded as being suitable to measure the constructs and were consequently utilised to determine the significance of the relationships between the various constructs.

6.2.2. Major Hypothesis

The major research question, which forms the central focus point of this research study, asks: *Is career self-management statistically significant related to job performance?* By answering this research question, the major hypothesis of the study can either be rejected or confirmed. Following from this research question, other subsequent research questions were also put: *Is career exploration statistically significant related to job performance? Is career goal setting statistically significant related to job performance? Is career strategising statistically significant related to job performance?* Based on the findings of this research, these questions could all be answered.

It was found that the two major variables (career self-management and job performance) are not statistically significantly related to each other. The major hypothesis of the study therefore cannot be accepted. This finding is “revolutionary” in the sense that it is contrary to what was previously proposed in career development literature. The significance of this finding also lies in the fact that it serves as a confirmation of Noe’s findings regarding the statistical relationship between the two constructs and will therefore contribute to the field of Occupational Psychology.

6.2.3. Sub-Hypotheses

The findings, which can be drawn from the statistical data, also reflect on the sub-hypotheses. The following were concluded regarding the sub-hypotheses:

6.2.3.1. Relationship between career exploration and job performance

It was found that no statistically significant relationship exists between the first independent variable constituting career self-management, i.e. career exploration, and the dependent variable, job performance. The sub-hypothesis, stating that this variable has a

statistically significant influence / effect on job performance, is therefore not accepted.

The conclusion can therefore be drawn that although an individual engages in substantive career exploration – of the self and the environment – it will not necessarily improve his/her job performance.

6.2.3.2. Relationship between career goal setting and job performance

No linear relationship (i.e. no correlation or regression) exists between the second independent variable constituting career self-management, i.e. career goal setting, and job performance. Based on this finding, the second sub-hypothesis cannot be accepted.

Consequently, although an individual sets challenging, but realistic career goals for himself/herself, the person's job performance will not increase as a result thereof.

6.2.3.3. Relationship between career strategising and job performance

No statistically significant relationship exists between the third independent variable constituting career self-management, namely career strategising, and job performance. Consequently, the third sub-hypothesis cannot be accepted.

It can thus be concluded that, even if an individual develops career strategies to realise his/her career goals, his/her job performance will not automatically improve.

6.2.3.4. Relationship between amount of information and job performance

Also, no statistically significant relationships exist between any of the respective dimensions, which constitute the independent variables of career self-management, and the dependent variable, i.e. job performance.

The sub-hypothesis, that a statistically significant relationship exists between the amount of information that an individual obtains on his/her career and his/her job performance, is therefore not accepted.

Thus, even if an individual obtains a significant amount of information before making a career decision, it will not necessarily enable him/her to perform better at his/her job.

6.2.3.5. Relationship between frequency of career exploration and job performance

According to the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient obtained from the statistics, it is evident that no statistically significant relationship exists between the frequency of career exploration conducted and the dependent variable, i.e. job performance.

Accordingly, the number of times that the individual engages in career exploration activities, has no significant bearing on his/her job performance.

6.2.3.6. Influence of biographical items on career self-management

It was also found that no statistically significant differences exist between the averages of the biographical items with regard to career self-management. Therefore, the career management activities and behaviour do not differ significantly between individuals from different *age* groups, from different *gender* groups, from different *population* groups, from different organisational *positions*, with different *work backgrounds* (*work experience, job experience, organisation experience*) and with different *educational backgrounds* (*qualifications*).

The following conclusions can thus be drawn:

- Age does not play a significant role with regard to career self-management behaviour amongst individuals - younger individuals

and older individuals engage in similar / equivalent career self-management activities;

- The culture, that males are the breadwinners, still prevails in South Africa to a large extent. One therefore expected that males would engage in career self-management activities more frequently and intensively than females did. The statistical analysis showed, however, that males and females do not differ significantly with regard to their career management behaviour;
- The expectation with regard to the influence of population groups on career self-management behaviour was that some population groups (specifically the previously advantaged groups) would be more prone to managing their careers, as they might have been more exposed to such activities in the past. It was found, however, that individuals from different population groups (Whites, Coloureds, Blacks, Asians, other) engage in similar amounts of career self-management activities;
- Hammer and Vardi (1981, cited in Sugalski et al., 1986, p.111) stated that “an organisation’s job mobility policy can encourage career self-management”. It was therefore expected that employees in managerial capacities manage their careers more and better than those employees in technical-professional and clerical positions. The research showed, however, that managerial employees do not engage in significantly more career self-management activities than those people in technical-professional and clerical positions;
- No statistical results were found to indicate that a relationship exists between an individual’s work background (i.e. years employed by the current organisation, years’ experience in the current job, total years’ working history) and his/her career self-management activities. An individual will therefore not necessarily engage in more or fewer career self-management activities once he/she gains more experience in the current job or organisation;

- One will expect that the better qualified an individual is, the more he/she will become aware of career management activities and interventions and the more he/she will engage in career self-management. It was found, however, that no significant differences exist between the career self-management behaviour of qualified and non-qualified individuals.

Career self-management is therefore not significantly influenced by any of the biographical factors. The last sub-hypothesis, stating that biographical factors have a statistically significant influence on career self-management, is also not accepted.

6.2.4. Other findings

Furthermore it was also found that the type of industry had little or no effect on the finding that no statistically significant relationship exists between any of the independent variables and the dependent variable (job performance).

Noe's assumption that certain personality types, based on the assumption that the different industries included in the sample accommodate different personality types according to Holland's typology, and who may therefore be more prone to managing their careers and as such display a stronger relationship with job performance, is therefore rejected. It can thus be concluded that personality does not affect the relationship between career self-management and job performance significantly and it seems as if different personality types engage in similar amounts of career management activities.

6.2.5. Conclusive finding

It can be concluded from the findings that, even if the individual has not engaged in extensive career exploration activities, has not set career goals for himself/herself and has no or only a limited number of career strategies in place, it will not preclude the individual from performing well at his/her job.

6.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings obtained from the research, certain recommendations can be made that should be considered. These recommendations are, however, limited because of the fact that no statistically significant relationships were found to exist between any of the independent variables that were measured and job performance. The following aspects are nevertheless recommended:

6.3.1. Improvement of Job Performance

An increase in the extent to which an individual manages his/her career will not have a significant impact on his/her job performance. It is therefore recommended that, if the aim of an organisational or individual intervention is to improve job performance, it should not be attempted by means of conducting a career management intervention. Other, more direct ways exist to improve job performance.

6.3.2. Career Management Literature

Based on the results that no statistically significant relationship exists between the career self-management and job performance of individuals, it is recommended that the career management literature should be adjusted to incorporate these new findings.

The literature should take cognisance of the fact that a relation between the two variables could not statistically be established. It should be confirmed that, even if an individual conducts extensive career exploration, sets career goals and has various career strategies in place, his/her job performance might not improve accordingly.

6.3.3. Career Self-Management as Predictor

The research focused primarily on job performance as dependent variable. The independent variable, career self-management, could

also be utilised to elucidate other work-related behaviour. For further research purposes, the statistical relationship between career self-management and other dependent variables can therefore also be investigated.

6.4. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

The sample characteristics, which Noe identified as major limitations of his study, were addressed during the course of this study. Firstly, a bigger sample was selected ($N = 307$), whereas the sample in Noe's study included a total of 51 individuals. Also, in this instance the sample was selected from five diverse industries, whilst Noe's sample was selected from one organisation and thus one industry only. As a result of the diversity of the organisations and industries included in this research study, enterprising, conventional, social and realistic personality types were included in this sample group, whereas only realistic and investigative personality types formed part of Noe's sample group.

Although the limitations with regard to the sample characteristics were addressed in this research study, the study was not free of limitations.

6.4.1. More Dependent Variables

The first research limitation is the fact that, as mentioned on the previous page, only one dependent variable was investigated. No statistical relationships could unfortunately be found between any of the independent variables and the dependent variable, job performance. This is in itself not a major limitation, although more purposeful recommendations could have been made had statistically significant relationships been found. The analysis of the statistical significance of the relationship between career self-management and any other dependent variable, such as developmental behaviour, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, etc., therefore could have been included as part of this study.

6.4.2. Career Self-Management Questionnaire

Another limitation with regard to this study is that the Career Self-Management Questionnaire utilised to test the independent variable, career self-management, was an extensive questionnaire. Although the questionnaire possesses the characteristics of reliability and validity, the length of the questionnaire might have influenced the responses, and thus the results that were obtained from the sample group.

6.4.3. Measurement of Job Performance

The job performance of the participants was measured by means of the Job Performance Questionnaire. This might not have been the best way to measure the individuals' job performance; the measurement of job performance could therefore have had an effect on the results obtained from it.

Firstly, in some instances, at organisations in the sample group where no formal performance management systems exist, the performance rating may have been inaccurate because it was completed by the superior only and thus based on his/her subjective view. *Secondly*, the individuals were never consulted regarding their performance rating. *Lastly*, no specific competencies, as required by the position, were measured, but only an overall view of the individual's performance was required.

6.4.4. Empirical Research

The empirical part of this research could also have been conducted in another manner. The proposed empirical research process is as follows:

- select N individuals on a random basis,
- divide these individuals into two separate groups, i.e. the experimental group and the control group,
- measure the job performance of all these individuals by means of the Job Performance Questionnaire,
- expose individuals in the experimental group to a career self-management programme.

- measure the job performance of all the individuals – the experimental group and the control group – after a reasonable time period.

If the job performance of individuals in the experimental group are significantly higher than the job performance of the individuals in the control group, then the conclusion can be drawn that, the more an individual engages in career self-management activities, the better his/her job performance will be. This empirical research will most probably allow for better statistical results and more accurate measurements.

6.5. THE VALUE OF THIS STUDY

Individuals are faced with immense challenges regarding career-related issues, which require careful and precise management of their careers.

These career issues include for instance that individuals no longer work for one organisation during their work lives and therefore change jobs, organisations and even careers during this period. Also, with the high unemployment rates in South Africa, the mobility to make significant career changes are often limited and the risks involved consequently greater. *Global competitiveness, productivity, effectiveness and efficiency* are keywords in today's business world and the right skills, knowledge and competencies are prerequisites for career advancement.

Career self-management can therefore no longer be ignored or neglected, but need to be conducted by each and every individual. If individuals manage their careers properly, they will ensure that they are equipped with the right skills, knowledge and competencies to add value to organisations, they will make informed career decisions and they will continuously work towards realising their career goals.

This study thus adds value to the Occupational Psychology field in that new emphasis is placed on the importance of career *self*-management, especially in the South African context, and also on how individuals should conduct this process.

Career management is, however, not only a matter of importance to individuals, but also concerns organisations. Presently, the South African workforce is faced with challenges in the workplace caused by numerous factors such as affirmative action, employment equity, illiteracy, AIDS, retrenchments, new labour legislation, outsourcing, etc. In order to ensure continuity of the workforce, to reduce labour turnover and to limit the uncertainties facing the workforce, career management has an important role to play.

It is thus important that organisations assist employees with career exploration, setting of career goals, deciding on appropriate career strategies, putting strategies into action as well as with the regular appraisal of their careers. The question raised by organisations, when conducting these career management initiatives, is what returns on investment they can expect? If organisations invest in career management activities, will employees' job performance necessarily improve significantly?

This relationship was investigated and thus formed the major research question for this study. The career development literature purports that a linear relationship does exist between the two variables, i.e. the more career self-management an individual engages in, the better he/she will perform at his/her job (Dweck, 1986). Noe found in his study, however, that no statistically significant relationship exists between the above-mentioned two variables. This was a controversial finding, in that it was against all conventional theories, beliefs and expectations created and maintained by the literature. Noe was critical of his findings, because of the several limitations in respect of the characteristics of his sample. He therefore proposed that the relationship be re-investigated to either confirm or reject his findings.

The value of this study is therefore centred in the fact that this study was indeed a repetition of Noe's research and served the purpose of clarifying the relationship between career self-management and job performance.

As stated previously, it was found that no statistically significant relationship exists between career self-management and job performance. This study

therefore *confirms* Noe's controversial findings and rejects the viewpoint previously purported in conventional career development literature.

Consequently, the value and essence of this research study is captured by the clarity that it provides with regard to the uncertainty about whether or not a statistically significant relation exists between the two variables, career self-management and job performance.

The assumption that, once an organisation has implemented a career management / development plan for each individual, it can expect an increase in the job performance of each individual, is thus rejected. The benefits of career management are not denied, but cannot be measured in terms of a consequential improvement in job performance.

6.6. FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

Although career self-management does not statistically significantly influence job performance, the construct may have an impact on other dependent variables, such as job satisfaction, motivation, self-actualisation, career advancement, development behaviour, etc. Research conducted with regard to the above-mentioned relationships will therefore be valuable, because the importance of career self-management may be re-established and re-confirmed in such a manner.

Other career-related variables may influence job performance more significantly than career self-management does. Research may very well choose to concentrate on the prediction of the dependent variable, job performance. The influence of other career-related independent variables on job performance may therefore also be explored. This may be a worthwhile research opportunity in that career-related activities that influence job performance significantly can be identified and accordingly be incorporated in training courses and development programmes to improve the job performance of individuals significantly.

6.7. CONCLUSION

It was evident from the discussion of the statistical results that no statistically significant relationship exists between the dependent variable, job performance, and the independent variable, career self-management, or any of the components constituting career self-management, or any of the dimensions that constitute the respective career self-management components.

It can thus be concluded that job performance cannot be manipulated or influenced by manipulating or influencing career self-management behaviour or activities of individuals. Similarly, if an individual engages in extensive career self-management activities, it cannot be expected that his/her job performance will improve as a consequence thereof.

6.8. SUMMARY

The research question, i.e. whether a statistically significant relationship exists between career self-management and job performance, is complex in nature. This study was an effort to research this phenomenon further.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

1	2	3
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CAREER MANAGEMENT

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your co-operation in this regard is highly appreciated.

Attached you will find a questionnaire containing questions on your career and the way that you have managed this aspect of your work life. Please answer the questions as honestly as possible to ensure that the correct conclusions can be drawn from this questionnaire.

You are kindly requested to take note of the following aspects regarding the completion of this questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of three sections – please ensure that *all three sections* are completed. The questions can be answered by *making a cross over the option* of your choice. Lastly, please ensure that your *name* and the *department* in which you work, are filled in. The only reason why your identity is requested is to ascertain whose questionnaires have been returned. Complete confidentiality is guaranteed and the information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for academic purposes only.

Yours sincerely
Deidre Bredell

NAME:-----

DEPARTMENT:-----

APPENDIX B

SECTION AFor Office
Use Only**1. Age**

1	2	3	4	5
Younger than 20 years	20 – 30 years	31 – 40 years	41 – 50 years	Older than 50 years

4

2. Gender

1	2
Male	Female

5

3. Population group

1	2	3	4	5
White	Black	Coloured	Asian	Other

6

4. Position in the current organisation

1	2	3
Managerial	Technical-professional	Clerical

7

5. Years employed at the current organisation

1	2	3	4	5
Less than 2 years	2 – 5 years	6 – 10 years	11 – 25 years	More than 25 years

8

6. Years experience in current job

1	2	3	4
Less than 5 years	5 – 10 years	11 – 20 years	More than 20 years

9

7. Total years working experience

1	2	3	4	5
Less than 5 years	5 – 10 years	11 – 20 years	21 – 30 years	More than 30 years

10

8. Qualifications

1	2	3	4	5
Less than Grade 12 (Matric)	Grade 12 (Matric)	Certificate/Diploma	Degree	Post graduate

11

SECTION B

At some stage, every person gathers more information about a specific career area in which he/she is interested, whether it is the career area in which the person is currently employed or in a different area (career, occupation, organisation) of interest.

1. How much information do you have on your *present career* that you have investigated?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>some</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>	<i>a tremendous amount</i>

12

2. How much information do you have on the *most prominent alternative career* that you have investigated?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>some</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>	<i>a tremendous amount</i>

13

3. I currently have

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very little information on jobs, organisations and the job market</i>		<i>a moderate amount of information on jobs, organisations and the job market</i>		<i>a lot of information on jobs, organisations and the job market</i>

14

4. I currently have

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very little information on how I'll fit into various career paths*</i>		<i>a moderate amount of information on how I'll fit into various career paths*</i>		<i>I have thoroughly explored myself and know what to seek and what to avoid in developing a career path*</i>

15

* Career Path refers to the specific direction of a career, based on the individual's career goal, and includes the series of positions that will ultimately lead to the attainment of the career goal.

How satisfied are you with the amount of information you have on:

5. The most prominent job in which you are interested?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not satisfied</i>				<i>very satisfied</i>

16

6. The type of organisation that will, according to you, meet your personal needs?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not satisfied</i>				<i>very satisfied</i>

17

7. Jobs that are in line with your interests and abilities?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not satisfied</i>				<i>very satisfied</i>

18

How sure are you:

8. That you know the type of job that is best for you?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not too sure</i>				<i>very sure</i>

19

9. That you know the type of organisation that you want to work for?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not too sure</i>				<i>very sure</i>

20

10. That you know exactly the job you want to enter?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not too sure</i>				<i>very sure</i>

21

11. Of your preference for a specific future position*?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not too sure</i>				<i>very sure</i>

22

*Future position refers to a particular future appointment within the organisational hierarchy.

To what extent have you behaved in the following ways over the last 3 months:

12. Experimented with different activities with regards to the development of your career?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

23

13. Sought opportunities to demonstrate career related skills?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

24

14. Tried specific work roles just to see if you liked them?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

25

To what extent have you behaved in the following ways over the last 3 months:

15. Investigated alternative career possibilities?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

26

16. Went to various career orientation programs?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

27

17. Obtained information on specific jobs or organisations?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

28

18. Initiated conversations with knowledgeable individuals in your career area?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

29

19. Obtained information on the labour market and general job opportunities in your career area

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

30

To what extent have you done the following in the past 3 months:

20. Reflected on how your past career integrates with your perceived future career?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

31

21. Focused your thoughts on you as a person with regards to work?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

32

22. Reflected on your past career?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a moderate amount</i>	<i>a substantial amount</i>	<i>a great deal</i>

33

23. How many alternative occupations *within your present career* are you investigating?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>one</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>four</i>	<i>five or more</i>

34

24. How many *alternative career areas* are you investigating?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>one</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>four</i>	<i>five or more</i>

35

How do the employment possibilities look for:

25. The most prominent alternative job you prefer?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not good</i>				<i>very good</i>

36

26. The most prominent alternative organisation you prefer?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not good</i>				<i>very good</i>

37

27. On average, how many times *per month* have you specifically sought information on careers within the last few months?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>5 or less</i>	<i>6 - 10</i>	<i>11 - 15</i>	<i>16 - 20</i>	<i>21+</i>

38

What is the probability that each of the following activities will result in obtaining your career goals?

28. Planning your job search in detail.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

39

29. Developing a specific process for investigating organisations.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

40

30. Developing questions to ask at employment interviews.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

41

31. Systematically investigating the key organisations in your career area.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

42

What is the probability that each of the following activities will result in obtaining your career goals?

32. Learning more about yourself.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

43

33. Assessing yourself with the specific purpose of finding an alternative job that meets your needs.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

44

34. Understanding the relevance of past career behaviour for your future career.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

45

35. Obtaining information on the labour market and general job opportunities in your career area.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

46

36. Initiating conversations with friends and relatives about careers.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

47

37. Initiating conversations with several other colleagues about their career interviews.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>very low probability</i>	<i>low probability</i>	<i>moderate probability</i>	<i>high probability</i>	<i>very high probability</i>

48

How important is it to you at this time to:

38. Work at the job you prefer?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not important</i>				<i>very important</i>

49

39. Work in the organisation you prefer?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not important</i>				<i>very important</i>

50

40. Become established in a specific organisation?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not important</i>				<i>very important</i>

51

41. Become established in a specific position?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>not important</i>				<i>very important</i>

52

The process whereby an individual experiences discontent with his/her current job and explores alternative options often causes undesirable stress.

How much undesirable stress have the following caused you relative to other significant issues with which you have had to contend?

42. Exploring specific jobs.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>insignificant compared to other issues with which I had to contend</i>			<i>about equal to other significant issues</i>			<i>one of the most stressful issues with which I have had to contend</i>

53

43. Specific attempts to find a job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>insignificant compared to other issues with which I had to contend</i>			<i>about equal to other significant issues</i>			<i>one of the most stressful issues with which I have had to contend</i>

54

44. Deciding on a specific job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>insignificant compared to other issues with which I had to contend</i>			<i>about equal to other significant issues</i>			<i>one of the most stressful issues with which I have had to contend</i>

55

45. Deciding what you want to do.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Insignificant compared to other issues with which I had to contend</i>			<i>about equal to other significant issues</i>			<i>one of the most stressful issues with which I have had to contend</i>

56

46. Interviewing with specific organisations.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>insignificant compared to other issues with which I had to contend</i>			<i>about equal to other significant issues</i>			<i>one of the most stressful issues with which I have had to contend</i>

57

47. Deciding on a specific organisation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	58
<i>insignificant compared to other issues with which I had to contend</i>			<i>About equal to other significant issues</i>			<i>one of the most stressful issues with which I have had to contend</i>	

SECTION C

1. **To what extent have you built a network of contacts within your existing division/organisation for obtaining information about events, changes, or activities within the division/organisation?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

59

2. **To what extent have you built a network of friendships in your existing division/organisation that could help further your career progression?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

60

3. **To what extent do you have friendships with individuals who perform different kinds of work that you do for the division/company?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

61

4. **To what extent do you attempt to interact with influential people in your division or department?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

62

5. **To what extent have you tried to develop skills that may be needed to attain your career goal?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

72

6. **To what extent have you taken leadership in work areas where there appeared to be no leadership?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

73

7. **To what extent have you tried to develop skills and expertise in areas that are critical to your unit's operation?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

74

8. **Do you make your supervisor aware of your accomplishments?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

75

9. **Have you made your supervisor aware of the job assignments you want?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

76

10. **Have you made your supervisor aware of your aspirations and career objectives?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

77

11. **Have you asked your supervisor for career guidance?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

78

12. **Have you sought career guidance from other experienced persons in the division/company?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

79

13. **Have you sought career guidance from a more experienced person outside the division/company?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

80

14. **Do you believe that discussing your career interests with others will benefit you?**

1	2	3	4	5
<i>to a very small extent</i>				<i>to a very large extent</i>

CARD 2
1

APPENDIX C

JOB PERFORMANCE

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. I am currently studying towards my Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of Stellenbosch and your co-operation and assistance in this regard is therefore highly appreciated.

Attached you will find a questionnaire containing questions on one of your subordinate's job performance. Please answer the questions as honestly as possible to ensure that the correct conclusions can be drawn from this questionnaire. Should you feel, however, that you do not know the subordinate's job performance well enough, it is suggested that a person in a supervisory capacity be approached to assist you in the completion of this questionnaire. Confidentiality should, however, be emphasised in such events.

You are kindly requested to take note of the following aspects regarding the completion of this questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of five questions – please ensure that *all five questions* are completed. The questions can be answered by *making a cross over the option* of your choice. Complete confidentiality is guaranteed and the information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for academic purposes only.

Yours sincerely
Deidre Bredell

NAME OF SUBORDINATE:

APPENDIX D

JOB PERFORMANCE

For Office
Use Only

1. **Would you rehire this person to work for you if he/she quits?**

1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>definitely not</i>					<i>definitely yes</i>

74

2. **In general, how easy would it be to find someone who would do as good a job as this person is doing?**

1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>very difficult</i>					<i>very easy</i>

75

3. **Overall, how would you rate this person's job performance?**

1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>significantly inferior to his/her fellow workers</i>					<i>significantly superior to his/her fellow workers</i>

76

4. **Overall, how motivated do you believe this person is to develop the required *interpersonal skills* that can improve his/her work effectiveness?**

1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>very unmotivated</i>					<i>very motivated</i>

77

5. **Overall, how motivated do you believe this person is to develop the required *technical skills* that can improve his/her work effectiveness?**

1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>very unmotivated</i>					<i>very motivated</i>

78